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# INTERMEDIATE HISTORY

IRELAND—GREAT BRITAIN—EUROPE

JUNIOR GRADE

1485 A.D. TO 1603

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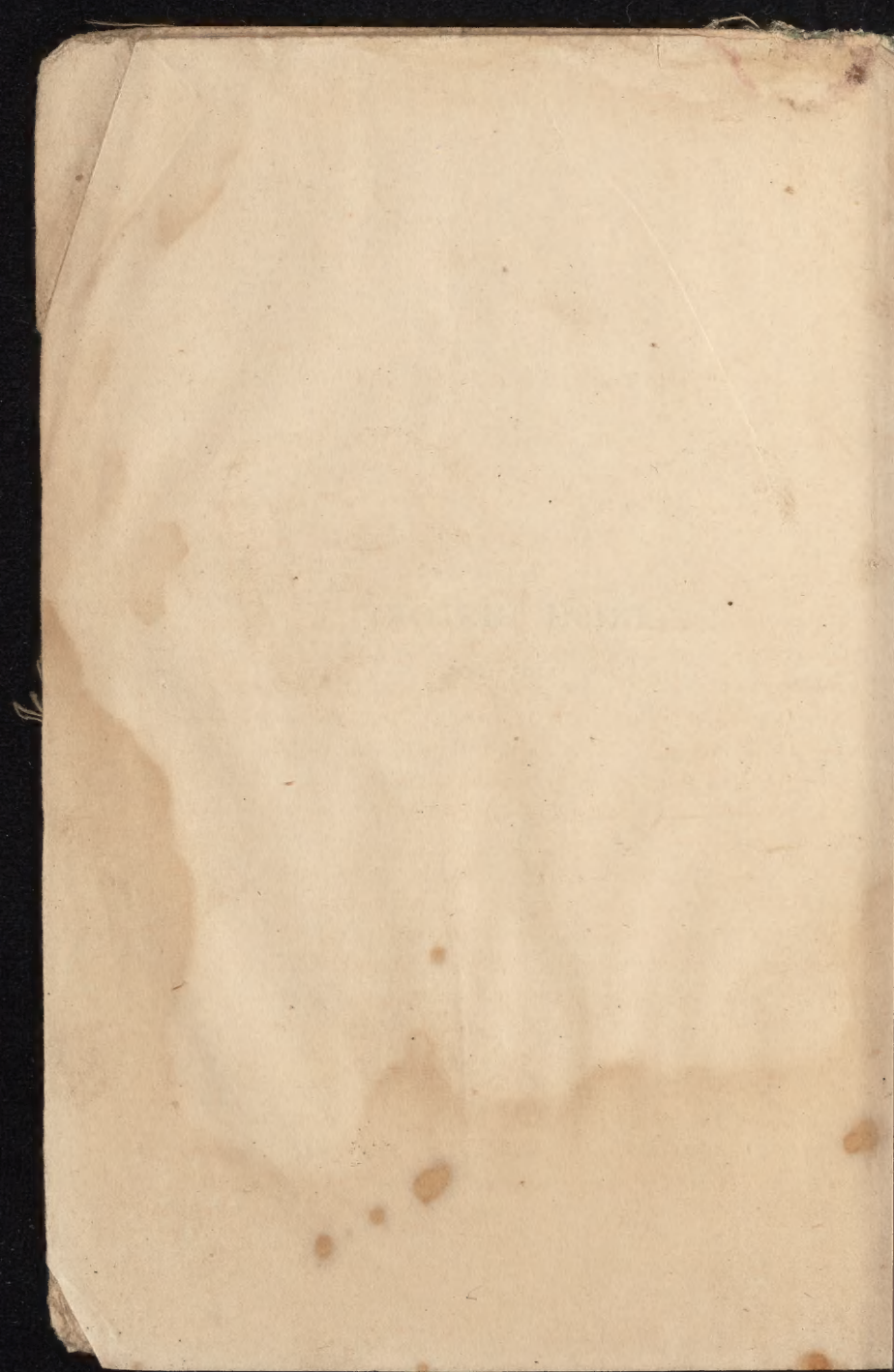
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IRISH

IRISH HISTORY

1485-1603



# IRISH HISTORY

## CHAPTER I

### Poynings's Law

The triumph of the Lancastrians at the battle of Bosworth (1485) was not followed by the immediate humiliation of their great Anglo-Irish opponents, the Geraldines. Gerald, the eighth Earl of Kildare, called the Great Earl, had been appointed Deputy in 1480, but so great was the Geraldine influence in Ireland that Henry VII deemed it prudent to retain him in office. Indeed, Gerald "ruled" intermittently until his death in 1513.

x The history, so far as it pertains to Ireland, of two extraordinary impostures must now be related. An Oxford youth named Lambert Simnel put himself forward as the young Earl of Warwick, and as such claimed the English throne. Many people believed the story of this comely and apparently innocent boy. His cause was warmly supported in Ireland, and he was crowned with much pomp in Dublin. A force of 2000 Germans was sent to Ireland by the Duchess of Burgundy to assist the new "king". Fired with this initial success, the Council in Dublin equipped a force for the service of Simnel in England. This army landed in Lancashire.

1487  
landed in

and was utterly defeated at Stoke. Notwithstanding his treasonable relations with Simnel, Kildare was continued as Deputy by Henry.

In 1492 a second impostor, Perkin Warbeck, arrived in Cork and claimed to be Richard, Duke of York, younger brother of Edward V. Much less warmly received than Simnel, he soon quitted Ireland for the Continent. In 1497 he again arrived in the South of Ireland, and received the support of the Mayor of Cork, of the Earl of Desmond, and of Lord Barry. Kildare and the rest of the Anglo-Irish held aloof. Thus poorly supported, Warbeck made but an indifferent display in Ireland. Among those executed with him in 1499 was John Waters, Mayor of Cork. ✓

The support accorded by the Anglo-Irish to Simnel and Warbeck showed Henry that in Ireland there existed determined enemies to his house. He accordingly took steps to render his unruly subjects less capable of defying his authority. In 1494 he sent over Sir Edward Poynings as Lord-Deputy. Poynings summoned a Parliament to Drogheda, which, at the Deputy's instance, passed (1495) the following statutes:—

✓ 1. That no Parliament should be summoned in Ireland by the Deputy's authority without the King's special licence, and until the Acts intended to be passed at such Parliament were submitted and approved of the King and the English Privy Council.

2. All laws lately made in England should be valid in Ireland.

3. The Statute of Kilkenny was confirmed, except as regards the use of the Irish language.

4. Kildare was attainted on the charge of conspiracy, and sent prisoner to London.

# IRELAND

At the beginning of the  
Sixteenth Century.



5. The levying of coyne and livery and the use of Irish war cries were forbidden. ✓

The provisions which hampered the legislative power of the Parliament are commonly referred to as Poyning's Law. These provisions destroyed the independence of the Irish Parliament, and reduced it to the level of a court of registration.

After a year's confinement Kildare was allowed to plead his cause in the King's presence. He gave such frank answers and displayed such ready wit on this occasion that Henry, after being assured that "all Ireland cannot rule this man", said: "Then let this man rule all Ireland."

A battle in which many of the Irish and Anglo-Irish were engaged took place in 1504 at Knockdoe (County Galway). MacWilliam Burke, Lord Clanrickarde, who had married and ill-treated Kildare's daughter, seized some of the castles belonging to O'Kelly of Hy-many. Kildare intervened on behalf of O'Kelly, and had on his side the forces of the Pale and contingents from several of the northern clans. With Clanrickarde were the O'Briens, both of Thomond and Ara, O'Carroll of Ely, and MacNamara of Clare. Clanrickarde was defeated with a loss of 2000.

The battle of Monabraher, fought in 1510, may be regarded as a sequel to that of Knockdoe. Kildare led an expedition into Munster to chastise Clanrickarde's allies, but was met and defeated at Monabraher, near Castleconnell, by a force composed of O'Briens, MacNamaras, and Burkes.

While besieging Leap Castle, in O'Moore's country, Earl Gerald was mortally wounded (1513). The Four Masters have described him as "a knight in valour,

and princely and religious in his words and judgments". ✓

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## CHAPTER II

### Silken Thomas

The "Great Earl" was succeeded in the deputyship by his son Garret Og, the ninth Earl of Kildare. The new Deputy effected the subjection of several Leinster septs. His success excited the jealousy of the House of Ormond, the traditional rival of the House of Kildare. Many complaints were made about him, and, in 1520, he was relieved of office and replaced by the Earl of Surrey. This nobleman held the position only for a year, after which the Earl of Ormond was appointed. In the meantime Kildare had married Lady Elizabeth Grey, a near relative of Henry VIII, and was allowed to return to Ireland. Butler's government not being a success, Kildare was recalled (1524) to fill the difficult position of deputy. The Ormonds, however, were untiring in their efforts against him, and they had the powerful support of Cardinal Wolsey in England. Three years after his restoration to power, Kildare was again summoned to England, and was this time thrown into the Tower. Among the charges brought against him were that he used the King's ordnance to fortify his own castle of Maynooth, and that, when directed by the King to arrest the Earl of Desmond, he had deliberately permitted the latter to evade arrest. In 1530 Kildare was liberated, and sent to Ireland to rule jointly with Sir William Skeffington. Ere a year

was over, Skeffington was recalled, and Garrett Og was once more the sole ruler of Ireland. Again, in 1534, he received a summons requiring him to proceed to London to answer certain charges and authorizing him to appoint a substitute for whose administration he should be responsible.

The charges against him were that he violated the Statute of Kilkenny, inasmuch as his two daughters were married to the chiefs of Offaly and Ely, and he himself frequently took part as arbitrator in the affairs of these clans; and that he ravaged the lands of the Butlers. He appointed his son Thomas, generally known as Silken Thomas on account of the splendour of his clothes, to carry on the duties of Deputy.

Lord Thomas Fitzgerald was a young, inexperienced, hot-tempered man. Consequently when a report was spread by the enemies of the house of Kildare that Garrett Og was executed in London, Lord Thomas at once rode to the Council Chamber (St. Mary's Abbey, Dublin) and renounced (1534) his allegiance. Thus began the rebellion of Silken Thomas.

The adherents of Lord Thomas besieged Dublin and obtained its surrender, exclusive of the castle. Among those who took refuge in the castle was Archbishop Allen, a strong opponent of Garret Og. The Archbishop, trying to escape to England, was seized and brought before Thomas, who bade his followers to "take away that churl". Allan was thereupon savagely murdered.

Though the rebellion broke out on June 11th, and no English forces arrived until October 17th, and though Thomas had on his side O'Connor Faly, O'Carroll, and O'Brien of Thomond, yet the rebels made very little

headway. They harassed the Pale, attacked the Butlers, but achieved nothing tangible.

An English army under Sir William Skeffington arrived in October, 1534, but remained inactive until March, 1535, when it besieged Maynooth Castle, the stronghold of the Leinster Geraldines. This castle fell after nine days' siege, and its fall marks the turning-point of the campaign. The rising quickly melted away, and in a short time Thomas himself surrendered on condition that his life was to be spared. Thrown into prison, he, with five of his uncles, was executed at Tyburn in 1537. A boy of twelve was now the heir to the great earldom, and his person was eagerly but unsuccessfully sought by the authorities. He at length succeeded in escaping to Rome, where he was educated under the direction of Cardinal Pole. In 1554, during the reign of Mary, he was restored to his family estates and titles.

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### CHAPTER III

#### Disturbing Elements

In 1534 an Act was passed in the English Parliament abolishing the authority of the Pope in England. In the following year, by the Act of Supremacy, Henry VIII took the title of "Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England". Henry wished similar acts to be passed by the Irish Parliament, and in 1536 a Parliament was summoned in Dublin for the purpose of carrying out the Act of Supremacy. This measure was vehemently opposed by the Proctors who had

long represented the clergy in the Lower House. Parliament was prorogued, and on its reassembly a Bill prohibiting the Proctors from taking part in its deliberations was rushed through. An Act of Supremacy similar to the English one was then passed, the first-fruits of the bishoprics were vested in Henry, and an order was made for the suppression of several monasteries.

A Parliament, remarkable both as to its composition and its chief enactment, was summoned (1541) by Sir Anthony St. Leger, who was appointed Deputy in 1540. Unlike all previous ones, this Parliament was attended by several Irish chiefs. It enacted that "the King's Highness his heirs and successors, Kings of England, should always be Kings of Ireland". Hitherto the English kings from the time of John were simply "Lords of Ireland". English titles were now conferred on several of the Irish chiefs. Con Bacach O'Neill became Earl of Tyrone, his son Matthew (supposed to be illegitimate) Baron of Dungannon, O'Brien Earl of Thomond and Baron of Inchiquin, MacGillapatrik Lord of Upper Ossory, &c. These chiefs also formally surrendered their lands to Henry, receiving them back again in feudal tenure.

As succession to feudal property and English titles descended according to the law of primogeniture—a law unknown to the Brehon code—this change in the status of the Irish chiefs was certain to lead to confusion and strife.

The great religious revolution which began in England during the reign of Henry VIII could not fail to have an effect on the subject country. However, beyond the passing of the Acts mentioned and the demolition of

some churches and relics, little attempt at change was made in Ireland during the reign of Henry VIII. While in England, during the brief reign of Edward VI (1547-53), sweeping changes were made in religious matters, no serious effort at revolutionizing religious belief or form of worship was essayed in Ireland. A decree of Edward ordered the use of the Book of Common Prayer, but this decree became practically a dead letter.

The accession of Mary (1553-8) restored tranquillity in Irish ecclesiastical measures. So free was the country from religious troubles at this time that English Protestants, flying from persecution at home, found an asylum in Ireland.

During the reign of Mary the territories of the O'Moores (Leix) and of the O'Connors (Offaly) were confiscated and divided into shire-land. Leix and a portion of Offaly were called King's County in honour of King Philip; the rest was called Queen's County in honour of Queen Mary; while the towns of Dangen and Campa were named Philipstown and Maryborough respectively. The most fertile of the confiscated territory was planted by English colonists.

The reigns of Henry VIII and his children therefore mark an important era in Irish history. Differences in religious beliefs, differences in the mode of succession to land and chieftainship, and the introduction of the policy of confiscating and planting tribal territory are responsible, either separately or collectively, for most of the strife and turmoil of subsequent times.

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## CHAPTER IV

Shane O'Neill

Elizabeth's accession (1558) heralded the re-establishment of the Protestant religion. In 1560 a Parliament held in Dublin sanctioned the adoption of the English ecclesiastical system: the Acts of Mary's reign were repealed; the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity were passed. All "judges, justices, mayors, and temporal officers" were declared bound to take the oath of supremacy.

It has been stated that Con Bacach O'Neill and his supposed illegitimate son, Matthew, were created Earl of Tyrone and Baron of Dungannon, respectively, by Henry VIII. Matthew's right to succeed to the headship of the O'Neills was disputed (c. 1551) by Shane (*Shane an diomais*, John the Proud), a younger son of Con. The Earl of Tyrone supported Shane's claim, and Matthew appealed to the Government for assistance, which he readily received.

Between the years 1551 and 1554 three expeditions which ended in failure were sent into Ulster against Shane. From 1554 to 1558 were years of comparative quiet. During this time, however, it became evident that Shane aimed at uniting all Ulster under him. Matthew was killed in a brawl in 1558, and Tyrone died in 1559. On the latter event Shane took the title of "The O'Neill", and was duly inaugurated head of his clan on the rath of Tullahogue. The Government now endeavoured to detach some of O'Neill's supporters, and to crush him in the field. Upon an effort being made to induce O'Reilly and O'Donnell to throw off

their allegiance to O'Neill, Shane invaded Breffni and Tirconnell, compelled O'Reilly to deliver hostages, and carried off O'Donnell's wife. He also defeated (1561) the force sent against him by the Deputy, Sussex.

The failure of these plans led to a change in the policy of the Government. The Deputy, through Kildare, O'Neill's cousin-german, negotiated with its sturdy opponent for a visit to London, where he could explain his position to Elizabeth. Accompanied by a train of gallowglasses, Shane visited the English Court in 1562. He acknowledged the Queen's supremacy, and was in turn recognized as chief of Tyrone. He also agreed to reduce the Scots of Antrim, to assist the Deputy in his wars, and to allow a Queen's garrison to occupy Armagh.

On his return to Ireland, Shane declined to admit the validity of this treaty, alleging that he accepted some of its terms under compulsion. Accordingly further negotiations were entered into, and Shane was confirmed (1563) in the title of "The O'Neill". He had, however, no compunction about attacking the Scots, for in 1565, at Glenshesk, County Antrim, he defeated them with great slaughter. O'Neill's haughtiness had meanwhile aroused the jealousy of the other Ulster chiefs, and when Sussex was replaced (1565) by an abler Deputy, Sir Henry Sidney, it was evident that "the beginning of the end" had come.

The fatal blow came from the O'Donnells, who now co-operated with Sidney. In 1567 Shane with a large force crossed into Tirconnell by way of Lough Swilly. O'Donnell met the Tyrone forces near Lifford and utterly routed them, those who escaped the sword being drowned by the rising tide. Shane was now a ruined man. Curiously enough, in the hour of his humiliation he took

refuge with the Scots of Antrim, among whom he was received with apparent courtesy. During the banquet which followed his reception the victor of Glenshesk was hacked to pieces.

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## CHAPTER V

### The Geraldine (Desmond) Rebellion

It has already been pointed out that much jealousy existed between the Butlers and Geraldines. In the year (1565) that Shane O'Neill defeated the Scots of Antrim, the Butlers and Munster Geraldines met in fierce conflict at Affane, near Cappoquin. This battle was the result of a dispute as to which House should exercise jurisdiction over the Decies. The Geraldine leader, defeated, wounded, and taken prisoner, was jestingly asked: "Where now is the great Earl of Desmond?" and replied: "Where he ought to be: on the necks of the Butlers".

During the reign of Elizabeth the head of the House of Ormond became a Protestant, while the Desmonds adhered to the old faith: consequently these two great houses became more bitter enemies than heretofore.

After having made arrangements for the overthrow of Shane O'Neill, Sir Henry Sidney—one of the ablest Deputies that ever ruled in Ireland—advanced into Munster to restore order. Writing to the Queen, he drew a melancholy picture of the desolation and ruin which existed in that province. He arrested Desmond, who, with his brother, John Fitzgerald, was shortly

afterwards sent to London, where they were detained for six years. +

These proceedings, reports that the Government intended to colonize a vast area in Munster, and the widespread belief among the Irish that Elizabeth intended to propagate Protestantism *vi et armis* gave rise to the Geraldine rebellion,

In 1569 James Fitzmaurice Fitzgerald, Desmond's cousin, called upon the "prelates, princes, and lords of Ireland" to band together in defence of "faith and fatherland". He was joined by MacCarthy More, O'Brien, the sons of Clanrickarde, and Sir Edmond Butler, Ormond's brother. But on the arrival of Sidney in Munster, Fitzmaurice's allies gradually withdrew from the field. The leader, continuing the struggle, retired to the Glen of Aherlow, whence he issued and burned (1571) the town of Kilmallock. His cause being, nevertheless, hopeless, he submitted (1573) to Sir John Perrot, President of Munster.

After his submission Fitzmaurice fled to the Continent and appealed to France, Spain, and the Pope for assistance. The Pope agreed to help him, and fitted out a small fleet under the command of an adventurer named Stukely. This fleet never reached Ireland: Stukely joined the King of Portugal in an expedition to Morocco. Fitzmaurice, who went from Rome to Spain by land, and thence set out for Ireland, arrived (1579) with a small force of Spaniards at Smerwick Harbour. Finding the rebellion practically dead in Munster, the energetic Geraldine proceeded to Connacht to raise troops, but was killed near Limerick in a quarrel with the Burkes of Clanwilliam. +

The Earl of Desmond and his brother were released

shortly after Fitzmaurice's submission (1573). Desmond himself, though sympathizing with his cousin, had not the resolution to take the field in 1579, and on the death of Fitzmaurice the command of the remnant of insurgents devolved on John Fitzgerald. They gained (1579) a victory at Springfield, County Limerick, but were defeated at Croom in the same year.

The position of affairs, however, assumed such a character as made it impossible for Desmond to remain neutral any longer. He joined the insurgents, and his action gave a great fillip to the rebellion; an outbreak even occurred within the Pale itself. For all that, Desmond's struggle was a forlorn hope. Sir William Pelham, the new Deputy, and Ormond systematically devastated the country and captured the Geraldine strongholds one by one.

In 1580, when the rebellion was almost crushed, a force of about 800 Spaniards and Italians landed at Smerwick. They brought a large supply of arms, but were surprised at not finding the Irish eager to avail themselves of their assistance. They entrenched in Fort Dunanore and were simultaneously besieged by Admiral Winter and Lord Grey of Wilton (Pelham's successor). The besieged were massacred to a man.

Now an outlaw and eagerly hunted down, the Earl of Desmond was murdered in 1583 in Kerry. Both the English poet, Spenser, and the Four Masters bear testimony to the appalling desolation and wretchedness which existed in Munster after this protracted rebellion. Slaughter and pestilence carried off a great number of people, and the survivors "looked like anatomies of death".

One important engagement was fought (1580) in

Leinster. At Glenmalure, in Wicklow, Lord Grey was utterly defeated by a force led by Viscount Baltinglas and Fiach MacHugh O'Byrne. This, however, proved a barren victory because of the triumphant progress of the Government forces elsewhere.

The Geraldine rebellion being suppressed, the lands—amounting to nearly 600,000 acres—of Desmond and his adherents were confiscated. This vast area was to be divided among a number of Englishmen, who were subsequently known as “Undertakers”. Each Undertaker was to pay the Crown a head rent of a few pence an acre, to plant his land with English-born farmers and cottiers, and to have no communication with the natives. Among the first Undertakers were Sir Walter Raleigh, the poet Spenser, Sir C. Hatton, and Sir Wareham St. Leger.

This project was not a success. English farmers and cottiers did not come over in sufficient numbers, while the Undertakers found it more to their advantage to let the land to the natives. ✕

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## CHAPTER VI

### \*The Capture of Hugh O'Donnell

Sir John Perrott was Deputy from 1584 to 1588. Under him were Sir Richard Bingham and Sir Thomas Norris, Presidents of Connacht and Munster respectively. The system of appointing governors for Connacht and Munster dates from about the year 1569, when Sir Henry Sidney was Deputy. The object of creating these offices

was the better to establish "the Queen's supremacy in things spiritual as well as temporal".

During Perrott's deputyship two notable events took place. One of these was the regulation of the system of land tenure in Connacht and Thomond, called "The Composition of Connacht". In 1585 Perrott summoned to Dublin the western lords and chiefs, who agreed to surrender to the Crown all the lands over which they exercised any authority, on condition of receiving them back on knight's tenure. Succession by primogeniture and the English legal system superseded Tanistry and the Brehon Code, and the lesser chiefs were no longer required to pay tribute to the dominant chieftains.

Sir Hugh O'Donnell, the chief of Tirconnell at this time, though acknowledging Elizabeth as his sovereign, would not allow the sheriff to enter his territories or consent to have Tirconnell converted into shire-land. He also feared that an attempt would be made to establish "the Queen's supremacy in things spiritual" among his people. On the other hand, Perrott, in view of the preparations being made in Spain for a descent on England, was anxious to strike a blow at the independence of such a powerful chief. Not having in Ireland an army sufficiently numerous to effect the subjection of O'Donnell, the Deputy had recourse (1587) to a stratagem.

O'Donnell had a very promising son, Hugh Roe or "Red Hugh", who lived with MacSweeny, his foster-father, in North Donegal. Perrott determined to capture this boy and hold him as a hostage. Accordingly the Deputy sent round to Lough Swilly a merchant vessel laden with wine and containing fifty armed men. Those on the mainland who were attracted to the vessel, among them being Hugh Roe, were invited on board to

sample the wine. While being entertained in the cabin the hatches were shut down, and the vessel put to sea. In a few days young Hugh was placed in Dublin Castle.

The youth escaped from his captivity in the winter of 1591, but, being quickly pursued, he took refuge with the O'Tooles of Wicklow. O'Toole, perceiving that Hugh's capture was inevitable, handed him over to the authorities. On the Christmas night of the following year Hugh again made his escape from the castle. This time he was accompanied by two fellow captives, the sons of Shane O'Neill. They set out for the headquarters of Fiach MacHugh O'Byrne, the victor of Glenmalure, one of the O'Neills dying on the way. Red Hugh eventually arrived safely among his people, and in the next year he was duly inaugurated as chief of Tirconnell.

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## CHAPTER VII

### Causes of the Rebellion of Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone

Sir John Perrott was succeeded in 1588 by Sir William Fitzwilliam. The latter was harsh and cruel in his dealings with the Irish chiefs. He thrust several of them into prison, including O'Doherty and O'Gallagher, "two of the most loyal subjects in Ulster". The MacMahons, O'Ruarcas, and Maguires were in open revolt, and the English sheriff was driven from Fermanagh by Maguire. Fitzwilliam then seized and garrisoned Maguire's castle at Enniskillen, but, when the Deputy

retired, Maguire and O'Donnell endeavoured to regain possession of the stronghold. A force sent to relieve the garrison was met by Maguire and Cormac O'Neill, and defeated (1594) near Enniskillen. The scene of the conflict has been subsequently called "The Ford of the Biscuits", on account of the large supply of provisions lost by the vanquished.

The O'Neill that took part in this engagement against the Government was not the head of that powerful clan. At this particular time the O'Neills had, in fact, two leaders: Turlough Luinach, Shane's successor and now an old man, and Hugh of Dungannon. No important event is associated with the name of Turlough; the history of Ireland from 1594 to 1607 is largely the history of Hugh of Dungannon.

Hugh O'Neill, born about 1545, was the son of Matthew of Dungannon, the rival of Shane. He had been brought up in England at the house of Sir Henry Sidney, and, until 1594, had always been on the side of the Government. He fought with the forces of the Crown against the Munster Geraldines, and, as temporal peer, sat in Perrott's Parliament of 1585. This Parliament recognized his claim to the earldom of Tyrone, and he was confirmed in the title by Elizabeth two years later. The Queen stipulated, however, that some places in the O'Neill country should be reserved for English forts, and that the Earl should levy no cess on any other Ulster chief. He was permitted to keep a standing army of six companies to preserve the peace of the North.

Though a member of the Irish Council, and in favour with the Queen, he was still an O'Neill, and was closely connected with several of the northern chiefs, some of

whom had risen in arms during the Fitzwilliam regime. He was a brother-in-law of Hugh O'Donnell, and consequently could not have viewed with equanimity Red Hugh's capture and imprisonment. One of his malcontent kinsmen reported to the Deputy that Hugh had sheltered Spaniards (some of the survivors of the Armada); the Deputy appointed a day for hearing the charge, but Hugh had his accuser arrested, tried for conspiracy against his chief, and hanged before the day appointed by the Deputy had arrived. On the death of his wife, Tyrone wished to marry Mabel Bagenal, sister of Sir Henry Bagenal, who was Chief Marshal of Ireland. The lady willingly married the Earl, but the Marshal withheld her dowry, and was ever afterwards a bitter enemy of Tyrone. Bagenal accused him with having sent his brother, Cormac, to help Maguire; with being in league with the Pope and the King of Spain; and with having proclaimed himself "The O'Neill" on the death (1590) of Turlough Luinach. Worse still, the Queen suspected him of treason.

Knowing well the power of England, he had no desire to appeal to arms, nor did he take the field until he learned that a large army was mustered to crush him. He thereupon formed an alliance with O'Donnell, Maguire, and MacMahon, and sent letters to Spain and to the Pope begging assistance in arms and men.

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## CHAPTER VIII

## Progress of the Rebellion of Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone

The first important event in Tyrone's rebellion was the seizure (1595), by his brother, Art, of Portmore, a fortress erected by the English in accordance with the treaty of 1587. Some months later a force of 3000, led by Sir John Norris, was defeated by Tyrone at Clontibret, five miles from Monaghan. Meanwhile O'Donnell entered Connacht, now chafing under the harsh rule of its President, Sir Richard Bingham, carried off the cattle, and burned the houses of many of the English of that province. North Connacht now became subject to Tirconnell.

The Queen and Tyrone being now anxious for peace, negotiations were accordingly opened. Tyrone and his allies demanded (1) liberty of conscience for the Irish, (2) the freedom of Ulster and North Connacht from the sheriff's interference, (3) that no English garrison be stationed in Ulster save in Newry and Carrickfergus. These demands were not acceded to.

In 1597, under a new Deputy, Lord Borough, and a new President of Connacht, Sir Conyers Clifford, the war was renewed. It was arranged that the Queen's troops should attack the O'Neill country from three directions: Clifford to set out from Connacht; young Barnewell, son of Lord Trimbleston, to march from Mullingar; and the Deputy himself to proceed from Drogheda. Clifford, who advanced as far as Ballyshannon, was eventually compelled by O'Donnell to beat a retreat. Barnewell's force was utterly defeated

by Captain Richard Tyrrell at a place ever since called "Tyrrell's Pass". Lord Borough himself seized (July, 1597) and garrisoned Portmore, but on his return was defeated by Tyrone at Drumflugh. Portmore was then besieged by O'Neill. Failing to take it by storm, he resolved to reduce it by starvation. In the summer of 1598 Bagenal, with about 5000 veterans, was sent to the relief of the garrison. An almost equal force under Tyrcene, Red Hugh O'Donnell, Maguire, and MacDonnell of Antrim assembled to dispute Bagenal's advance. The northern army took up a strong position at a place called Beal-an-Atha-Buidhe (the Mouth of the Yellow Ford), 2 miles north of Armagh. The opposing forces met on August 14th. Tyrone gained a signal victory. Over 2000 of his opponents fell; the rest fled leaving guns and ammunition behind. A few days after this engagement the garrisons of Portmore and Armagh surrendered.

As the result of O'Neill's great victory at the "Yellow Ford", the rebellion extended to Connacht and Munster. In the latter province the rebels had risen under the leadership of the nephew of the late Earl of Desmond. This new Geraldine leader was called the Sugane (Straw-rope) Earl because he held his title, not from the Queen, but from Tyrone.

In this crisis the Queen dispatched (1599) to Ireland an army of about 20,000 under the command of the Earl of Essex, who was also appointed Lord-Lieutenant. Strange to relate, Essex began by undertaking an expedition into Munster. At Ballybrittas, near Maryborough, the O'Moores slew 500 of his men. The defile in which this engagement took place has since been called the "Pass of the Plumes", on account of the number of

plumes belonging to the English knights found on the ground after the skirmish.

The Viceroy's southern expedition being a miserable failure, the Queen was enraged, and severely censured the Irish Council for not having, in the first instance, advised Essex to march into Ulster. When at length Essex did set out (August, 1599) for the north the forces at his disposal were not sufficiently numerous to warrant his anticipating the overthrow of the formidable rebel. The Viceroy found the northern forces occupying such a strong position that negotiations, not fighting, ensued. Tyrone laid down the conditions on which he was prepared to make peace, a truce was agreed on, and Essex set out for England in order to explain satisfactorily to the Queen his egregious failure.

Meanwhile the forces of the Crown had met with another serious reverse. O'Donnell, having laid siege to the castle of O'Connor, Sligo was threatened by a force under Sir Conyers Clifford, President of Connacht. Clifford's army was met (August, 1599) among the Curlew Mountains by O'Donnell's men, and defeated with much loss.

In 1600 Tyrone made what was to all intents and purposes a royal progress through Ireland. He marched by way of Westmeath and Tipperary to Cork. For about three weeks he remained in the neighbourhood of Inniscarra, where he was visited by several of the southern chiefs. He had now arrived at the zenith of his power.

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## CHAPTER IX

## The Battle of Kinsale

Essex was succeeded by a man who was to try a less orthodox but more effective style of warfare than that already practised against Tyrone. Charles Blount, Lord Mountjoy, who came over in 1600, "made war with the spade rather than with the sword"<sup>1</sup>. He posted garrisons in most of the commanding positions of the country, and gave orders for the systematic destruction of everything that could afford the rebels a means of subsistence. Mountjoy was ably supported in this policy by Sir George Carew, President of Munster. Carew offered £1000 reward for the capture of the Sugane Earl, who was eventually betrayed by his kinsman, the White Knight<sup>2</sup>.

The methods<sup>3</sup> adopted by Mountjoy and Carew effected in a great measure the objects of their authors. By the summer of 1601 English power was re-established in the three southern provinces, while the situation in the north had changed to the disadvantage of Tyrone. This was the position of affairs when the long-looked-for Spanish aid arrived. X

\*A fleet containing 3000 troops under command of Juan del Aguila landed (September, 1601) at Kinsale. O'Neill and O'Donnell hastened southwards to join the Spaniards, but found them completely invested by Mountjoy and Carew. The northern clans then en-

<sup>1</sup> Gardiner.

<sup>2</sup> The territory of the "White Knight" lay about Mitchelstown.

<sup>3</sup> An account of Carew's civil and military administration is given in his work *Pacatu Hibernia*.

camped near Belgooly, a few miles north of the town. Mountjoy's army, many of whom were Irish, was being rapidly thinned by disease and desertion. O'Neill, perceiving this, was in favour of playing a waiting game. Del Aguila, however, urgently appealed to the Irish chiefs to make a night attack on the enemy's camp as soon as possible. O'Donnell and other Irish chiefs also favoured an early engagement, and accordingly arrangements were at once made for a combined attack by the Spaniards and Irish.

Carew received particulars of the proposed attack, and consequently the English were prepared for the occasion. "Instead of surprising the enemy the Irish were themselves surprised."<sup>1</sup> Mountjoy gained (January 2, 1602) a decisive victory: over 1000 of the insurgents were slain, while Del Aguila surrendered Kinsale, as well as the castles of Baltimore, Castlehaven, and Dunboy. These castles were then held by Spanish garrisons, and belonged respectively to the O'Driscolls, the MacCarthys, and the O'Sullivans.

After the battle of Kinsale the defeated chiefs held a council of war, and decided that O'Donnell should be sent to solicit further aid from the King of Spain, and that the other chiefs should retire to their respective territories to await the result of O'Donnell's appeal. In September, 1602, O'Donnell, then only in his twenty-ninth year, died<sup>2</sup> at Simancas.

O'Sullivan, the owner of Dunboy Castle, did not acquiesce in the surrender of that stronghold to the English. He seized and garrisoned it before Carew's men arrived to take possession. The Munster Presi-

<sup>1</sup> D'Alton.

<sup>2</sup> It is asserted that he was poisoned by one Blake, an agent of Carew.

## IRELAND

About the end of the Tudor period.



dent thereupon led a force of over 3000 to invest Dunboy, which he captured after a most desperate resistance.

After the defeat at Kinsale, O'Neill and O'Donnell entrusted O'Sullivan with the command of the southern insurgents, or rather of the miserable remnant of them. The efforts of Carew and his lieutenants had reduced this remnant until, at the end of 1602, it consisted entirely of O'Sullivan's immediate followers. Reduced to this extremity, the Lord of Beare resolved on fighting his way to Ulster.

On the last day of 1602 he set out with 1000 people, 400 of whom were fighting men. Their route lay by Ballyvourney, Liscarroll, Ardpatrik, Aherlow, Portland, across the Shannon, Aughrim, and Knockvicar, near which was O'Ruarc's castle where they were hospitably received. O'Sullivan had only thirty-five followers at the end of the journey; cold, hunger, and continuous attacks had cut off the others.

## APPENDIX

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### A. SYNOPSIS OF HISTORY

### B. LIST OF DATES

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## A. SYNOPSIS OF IRISH HISTORY

### I. IRELAND UNDER THE TUDORS (1485-1603)

#### (a) During the reign of Henry VII (1485-1509)—

1. The Geraldine House of Kildare, though opposed to the Lancastrians during the War of the Roses, was vested with much political power.

2. Two impostors, Simnel and Warbeck, received such support in Ireland as to cause grave alarm to Henry.

3. A most important constitutional measure was passed by the Irish (Pale) Parliament.

#### (b) During the reign of Henry VIII (1509-47)—

1. The precipitate rebellion of Silken Thomas caused the downfall of the House of Kildare.

2. It was sought to impose on the Irish the ecclesiastical changes adopted in England.

3. Some Irish chiefs were granted English titles. This subsequently led to much trouble.

#### (c) During the reigns of Edward VI (1547-53) and Mary (1553-58)—

1. The territories of Leix and Offaly were confiscated.

2. And were planted and divided into shire-ground.

#### (d) During the reign of Elizabeth—

1. Three great rebellions (that of Shane O'Neill, the Geraldine rebellion, and that of Hugh O'Neill) were suppressed.

2. A vast area in Munster was confiscated and planted.

3. The regular establishment of the State Church took place.

## II. FOUR REBELLIONS OF TUDOR TIMES

Three of these rebellions are best dealt with by outlining the careers of their respective leaders.

### <sup>L</sup>(a) Silken Thomas—

1. Was son of the ninth Earl of Kildare.
2. Was appointed vice-deputy on his father being summoned to London for the third time to answer certain charges.
3. On hearing a report that his father was beheaded, renounced his allegiance and flew into open revolt.
4. Proved to be a soldier of slender capacity.
5. Surrendered on condition that his life should be spared.
6. Was executed with his five uncles at Tyburn.

### (b) Shane O'Neill—

1. Disputed (1551-8) with his (illegitimate) brother Matthew the right to succeed to the headship of the O'Neills.
2. Was opposed by the Government, which recognized Matthew's right to the succession.
3. Was a man of great resource and daring, and was much feared by the authorities.
4. Took the Irish title of "The O'Neill" when his father, who was Earl of Tyrone, died.
5. Having baffled several efforts for his overthrow, went to London for a personal interview with Elizabeth.
6. Was disliked, on account of his haughtiness, by many of the Ulster chiefs.
7. Was utterly defeated by O'Donnell.
8. Took refuge with the Scots of Antrim, with whom he had previously been at war, and was assassinated by them.

### (c) The Desmond Rebellion—

1. Was caused by (a) the widespread belief among the Irish that Elizabeth intended to propagate Protestantism by the sword, (b) the reports that the Government intended to colonize a vast area in Munster, (c) the arrest of the Earl of Desmond and his brother.
2. Was attended by a great amount of human suffering.
3. Was followed by vast confiscations and the plantation of much of Munster.

### <sup>V</sup>(d) Hugh O'Neill (1545-1616)—

1. Was son of Matthew, baron of Dungannon, the rival of Shane O'Neill.
2. Received his education in England, fought with the Crown forces during Desmond Rebellion, had his claim to the Earldom of Tyrone recognized, and was allowed to keep six companies of soldiers to preserve the peace of the north.

3. Generally acquitted himself as a loyal subject up to about the year 1595.

(e) Causes of his rebellion—

1. Life among the Tyrone clansmen naturally tended to sap his loyalty.

2. He was closely connected with several of the Ulster chiefs, some of whom were at enmity with the Government.

3. His brother-in-law, Red Hugh O'Donnell, had been seized and imprisoned in Dublin Castle.

4. He married Mabel Bagenal, sister of the Chief Marshal of Ireland, against the wish of her brother. This made Bagenal the bitter enemy of O'Neill.

5. His harbouring of some of the survivors of the Armada and the events to which it led.

(f) O'Neill's Rebellion (1595-1603)—

1. He at once achieved brilliant success, and the rebellion soon became a national rising.

2. The arrival of Lord Mountjoy as Lord Deputy in 1600 marks the turning-point of the rebellion.

3. When the rebellion was almost crushed, Spanish aid arrived at Kinsale.

4. Mountjoy's decisive victory at Kinsale practically ended the struggle.

5. A most important sequel to this rebellion was the flight (1607) of O'Neill and Rory O'Donnell, whose estates were thereupon declared forfeited.

### III. THE TUDORS AND THE RELIGIOUS QUESTION

1. Henry VIII caused an Act of Supremacy to be passed by the Irish Parliament.

2. During the reign of Edward VI the liturgy was translated into English.

3. Catholic worship was restored by Mary.

4. Elizabeth restored and completed the work of Henry VIII and Edward VI.

### B. CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

#### THE TUDOR PERIOD

1487. Coronation of Simnel at Dublin.

1492. Warbeck's arrival in Cork.

1494. Appointment of Poyning as Lord Deputy. Act known as "Poyning's Law" passed.

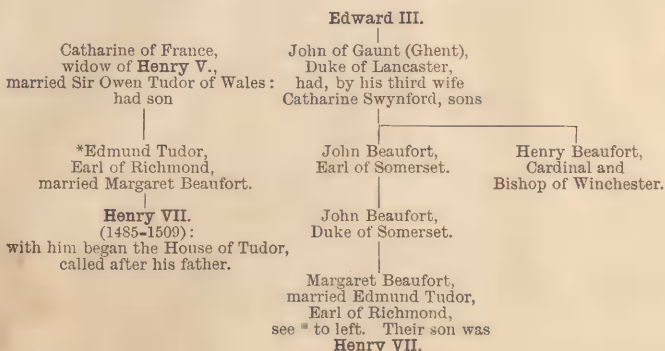
- 1497. Warbeck's second arrival in Ireland.
- 1504. Battle of Knockdoe.
- 1513. Death of the great Earl of Kildare.
- 1534. Rebellion of Silken Thomas.
- 1535. Capture of Maynooth Castle. Surrender of Silken Thomas.
- 1536. Act of Supremacy passed.
- 1537. Execution of Silken Thomas and his five uncles.
- 1540. Formal submission of many Irish chiefs.
- 1541. Henry VIII declared King of Ireland.
- 1558. The territories of Leix and Offaly "planted".
- 1559. Shane O'Neill assumes the title of "The O'Neill".
- 1560. Capture of O'Donnell and his wife by Shane O'Neill. Act of Uniformity passed.
- 1561. Defeat of Sussex by Shane. Visit of Shane to London.
- 1563. The Treaty of Benburb.
- 1565. Scots of Antrim defeated by Shane O'Neill.
- 1567. Shane defeated by the O'Donnells at Letterkenny. Shane murdered by the Scots of Antrim. The Earl of Desmond and his brother arrested by Sir Henry Sidney.
- 1569. Rising of Sir James Fitzmaurice, Fitzgerald, and several others.
- 1571. Capture of Kilmallock by Sir James Fitzmaurice.
- 1573. Surrender of Fitzmaurice.
- 1579. Arrival (at Smerwick) of Fitzmaurice from the Continent. Death of Fitzmaurice. Rising of the Munster Geraldines. Desmond places himself at the head of the rebels.
- 1580. Battle of Glenmalure. Massacre of the Spaniards at Smerwick.
- 1582. Conclusion of the Desmond rebellion.
- 1583. Murder of Desmond.
- 1586. Confiscation and plantation of Munster.
- 1587. Capture of Red Hugh O'Donnell.
- 1592. Escape of Red Hugh O'Donnell.
- 1595. League of the Ulster chiefs. Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, assumes the title of The O'Neill. Battle of Clontibret.
- 1597. Battles of Drumflugh and Tyrrell's Pass.
- 1598. Siege of Portmore and Battle of the Yellow Ford.
- 1599. Campaign of the Earl of Essex in Ireland. Battle of the Plumes.
- 1600. Arrival of Mountjoy and Carew in Ireland.
- 1601. Arrival of the Spaniards at Kinsale.
- 1602. Battle of Kinsale. Red Hugh sets out for Spain. Retreat of O'Sullivan Beare.
- 1603. Tyrone makes peace with Mountjoy. Death of Elizabeth and accession of James I.

BRITISH HISTORY

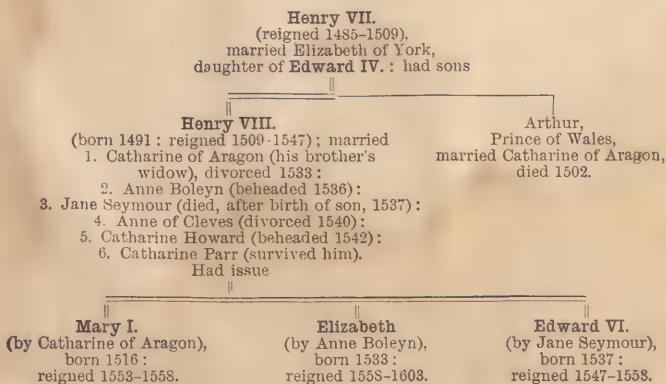
1485-1603

*House of Lancaster (continued).*

*Genealogy of HENRY VII. (Henry of Richmond).*



*House of Tudor (1485-1603).*



# BRITISH HISTORY

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## CHAPTER I

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR, 1485-1603—HENRY VII., 1485-1509; *Henry*  
HENRY VIII., 1509-1547

\*UNDER the Tudors, in England and in Europe generally, we pass from the twilight of the middle ages into the broad day of modern life. The European states, at the close of this period, show themselves with boundaries fixed, and populations settled, and institutions formed, in their main features, as they were destined to continue until comparatively recent times. The workings of the human mind will be seen issuing in religious revolutions, in the opening of new routes and discovery of new destinations for commerce, in great advances in arts and learning. Under the Tudors, England began to play a part in continental politics such as she had not yet attempted. The progress of the nation to complete civil freedom seems, for the time, to have been checked.

Under the Tudors, the great middle class of farmers, merchants, manufacturers, and tradesmen grew in influence.

Causes of  
Tudor  
tyranny. Of these the three last formed the main strength of the parliament in its struggle against the crown. The Tudor sovereigns, coming between the time when the nobles could check despotism and the time when this great middle class had learned to know its power, were enabled to rule more arbitrarily than the Plantagenets.

The kingdom was exhausted by the long civil contest, and the old nobility had well-nigh disappeared. Men longed for peace; and the tyranny of Tudor monarchs had for its only check the wholesome fear of armed revolt, to meet which English Tudor sovereigns possessed no standing army.

Henry VII. was crowned at Westminster in October, 1485. He had acquired the royal power by conquest. Edward IV.'s

Accession of  
Henry VII.

heir was his eldest daughter, the Princess Elizabeth of York. After her in the Yorkist line came the young Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of the late Duke of Clarence. He was now a boy of fifteen, and was committed by Henry to the Tower. The new king was the heir of the Lancastrian line. His mother, Margaret Beaufort, was great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, son of Edward III. His father, Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was the son of Sir Owen Tudor and Queen Catharine, widow of Henry V. An Act of Parliament confirmed the possession of the throne to Henry and to his heirs.

Henry VII. was a cold and crafty man, whose ruling passion was avarice, and whose chief principle of policy was the love of peace. He caused justice to be administered sternly and faithfully, save where greed of money and his strong feeling against the Yorkists interfered. He proved himself a wise and beneficial ruler in the encouragement he gave to trade and maritime discovery.

Character of  
Henry VII.

Henry's chief counsellors were two able clergymen, Morton, Bishop of Ely (afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury), and Fox, Bishop of Winchester. These had been united, by the king's marriage with Elizabeth of York.

Marriage  
with  
Elizabeth.

In the same year risings of Yorkists were suppressed. In 1487 a low-born impostor, named Lambert Simnel, was encouraged by the Yorkist faction to come forward and declare that he was the young Earl of Warwick, escaped from the Tower. His chief prompter was the Earl of Lincoln, John de la Pole, the son

The impostor  
Lambert  
Simnel.

of Edward IV.'s sister Elizabeth. The pretender had a pleasing face and manner, and was well received in Ireland, where the Yorkist cause was popular. Richard of York, the founder of the line, and Warwick's father, the Duke of Clarence, had won favour there in the office of lord-deputy. The imposture was exposed by the simple process of taking the real Warwick from the Tower and sending him escorted through the streets of London. Simnel and Lincoln landed in Lancashire with a hired force of 2000 Germans, and, joined by other troops, were routed by the royal forces under Henry at the battle of *Stoke*, in Nottinghamshire. The Earl of Lincoln was killed in action; *Simnel*, treated with the wise leniency of contempt, was set to wash the dishes in the royal scullery.

In November of this year the queen was crowned. Henry sought in this way to conciliate the Yorkists, as he recognised how dangerous their continued enmity might be to himself and his house.

Coronation  
of Elizabeth.

In 1492 a second and more troublesome impostor, named Perkin Warbeck, appeared, and kept his cause, with powerful help, floating for five years before the public. The new pretender gave out that he was the Richard, Duke of York, younger son of Edward IV., whom men held to have been murdered in the Tower. A youth of handsome face and winning manners, he was well received in Ireland, and many really believed in his pretensions. A native of Tournay in France, he was fully acknowledged as Duke of York by Margaret of Burgundy. He seems to have been a finished actor, and thoroughly imposed on many Yorkists. The king was kept well informed by spies of the communications passing between Flanders, where Warbeck was with Margaret, and the plotters in England. To meet Warbeck's story, Tyrrel and Dighton were produced, as two of those who took a personal share in murdering the princes in the Tower, and their confession was given to the world. The bodies of the princes could not at the time be found. The king turned on those in England whose intrigues with Flanders had been

The impos-  
tor, Perkin  
Warbeck.

detected. Several executions, including that of Sir William Stanley, whose treacherous desertion of Richard at Bosworth had turned the scale in Henry's favour, followed. In this way the plot was checked in England. In 1496 Warbeck landed in Ireland, but was driven out by the new lord-deputy, Sir Edward Poynings. He then betook himself to Scotland, and was well received by James IV., who married him to a daughter of Lord Huntly. Some border warfare followed between the Scotch and English, and Henry made the war an excuse for levying taxes. A Cornish insurrection against the taxes was put down at Blackheath, in Kent, whither the boldness and the anger of the miners carried them. In 1497 peace between James IV. and Henry drove Warbeck from Scotland, and he landed in Cornwall and soon found himself at the head of a considerable force. When the royal army approached him in Somersetshire, he meanly left his followers in the lurch and fled; and the rising ended with the hanging of a few of the insurgents. Soon afterwards he surrendered, and was imprisoned. In 1498 he escaped to sanctuary at Richmond; surrendered again; confessed his imposture, was committed to the Tower, and hanged. For alleged plotting with his fellow-prisoner, the Earl of Warwick was beheaded.

This act of violence secured the dynasty, while it disgusted and enraged the people. Warbeck's failure in Ireland had been mainly caused by the firmness of the lord-deputy under whose sway the *Statute of Drogheda*, or *Poynings' Law*, was passed in 1495. This law enacted that all previous legislation in England should be valid in Ireland, and that the approval of the English legislature should be required for the introduction of any bill into the Irish parliament. For nearly three centuries, up till 1782, the control of Irish affairs was thus in the hands of the English parliament.

In November, 1501, Henry sought to strengthen his position by the marriage of Arthur, Prince of Wales, to Catharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. A few months after the marriage the young prince died, and the king's

Statute of  
Drogheda.

Catharine of  
Aragon.

second son, Henry, was created **Prince of Wales**, and betrothed at eleven years of age to the youthful widow, who was over eighteen.

Henry VII. never forgot his two chief purposes, the increasing of the royal power and the adding to the royal treasure. Both objects were attained by the revival of the criminal jurisdiction of the king's council, destined hereafter to gain evil notoriety

Court of  
Star  
Chamber.

as the *Court of Star Chamber*. A room in the royal palace at Westminster, having its walls adorned with stars, gave to the court the name, which lasted long after its sittings were held elsewhere. It was always the engine of oppression; and its judges condemned men, contrary to the Great Charter, untried by their peers or equals; while enormous fines were levied from wealthy subjects for trifling or imaginary offences. The forced loans or *Benevolences* of Edward IV.'s reign were revived; and in all schemes for wringing money from a too patient people the king was well served by two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, who were made barons of the Court of Exchequer. Dudley was chosen speaker in 1504

Oppressions  
of Empson  
and Dudley.

by a servile House of Commons. No regard to law or equity restrained these instruments of tyranny. The most unscrupulous use was made of spies and informers, and penal laws new and old were used to enable the king to extort money. A modern aristocracy composed of men who had made money in trade, and had purchased the estates of nobles, was coming into existence. All who had wealth became liable to be plundered. Dormant claims were revived by the crown, and fines imposed for breaches of forgotten tenures. 'Morton's Fork' extorted gifts for his master equally from those who lived handsomely and from those who lived plainly.

The Stuart sovereigns were now reigning in Scotland. The first of the line was Robert II., son of Marjory Bruce (daughter of the great Robert Bruce), and Walter Stuart, a noble of Norman descent. Robert II. died in 1389, and was succeeded by his son, Robert III., a gentle, feeble personage, wholly unfit to cope with the fierce spirits that surrounded the throne. His brother, the

Short sketch  
of Scottish  
history.

Duke of Albany, governed the country, and used his power with a view to making his own family supreme in Scotland. One of Robert III.'s sons, David, died in prison in 1400, done to death, it is believed, by his uncle. His younger brother James, a boy of eleven, started for France in 1405. He was taken prisoner by an English vessel, and was for nineteen years a captive at Windsor. Henry IV. gave him an excellent education, and a book of poems called *The King's Quhair* (or Book), composed by him in England, is still extant. By the death of his father, Robert III., James became nominal King of Scotland in 1406; but Albany ruled the country as regent, and died in 1419, leaving Scotland a prey to utter anarchy.

✕ In 1424 the captive king returned to Scotland, and assumed his power as James I. He was an excellent and enlightened monarch, and probably did more for Scotland than any sovereign she ever had. Law and order took the place of turbulence and confusion. Enactments, based upon English legislation, regulated trade, settled taxation, and repressed lawless nobles. The just and needful severity applied to his unruly barons proved his ruin. In 1437, murdered at Perth by Scottish hands, he died a martyr to the cause of true social progress and righteous rule.

James I. of  
Scotland.

His son, James II., only six years old, was his successor. The strife of factions raged during his minority, and when he assumed power, the Douglasses had gained the first place among the nobles, and their influence was a constant menace to the throne. The Earl of Douglas was killed by James himself at Stirling. A king murdered his own invited guest. James II. perished in 1460, when one of the rude cannon of the time burst at the siege of Roxburgh Castle.

James II. of  
Scotland.

His son, James III., was now but eight years old, and again faction and disorder wrought much ill to Scotland. When the minority ended, the king proved one like Edward II. of England—an idle trifler with unworthy favourites. The nobles soon revolted, under the king's son Prince James, and James III. was killed in the pursuit after a lost battle with the rebels in 1488.

James III. of  
Scotland.

He was succeeded by his son, James IV., whom we have seen already in our history as the protector for a time of Perkin Warbeck. In 1502 James IV. of Scotland married Henry VII.'s eldest daughter, Margaret, and this union ultimately gave to the English throne the Stuart and the Hanoverian kings.

James IV. of  
Scotland.

A grand event in European history occurred in Henry VII.'s reign. A new world was given to commerce, to civilisation, and to Christianity in the discovery of America. Christopher Columbus, helped by Queen Isabella of Castile, was the first to discover land, in the West India Islands, beyond the hitherto mysterious ocean of the West. It was to Henry VII., as patron of the enterprise, that the world five years later owed its first knowledge of the mainland of America. In 1492 Columbus landed in the West Indies; in 1497 John Cabot, a Venetian, sent by Henry from Bristol, landed in Labrador, and his son, Sebastian Cabot, sailed southwards and explored the coast.

Discovery of  
America.

In 1498 the Portuguese explorer, Vasco de Gama, made his way round the Cape of Good Hope to India, and was the pioneer of what for more than three centuries was the chief route of the trade of Europe with the East.

Discovery of  
Cape of  
Good Hope.

Henry died in April, 1509, at his palace of Shene, the charming place upon the Thames which since his time has been called *Richmond*, after his former title. He was buried in the abbey at Westminster, within the chapel, noted for its beauty, which is still called by his royal name. His will enjoined, in general terms, upon his young successor that satisfaction should be given to the subjects wronged by the illegal doings of Dudley and of Empson.

Death of  
Henry VII.

Henry VIII., at eighteen years of age, was welcomed to the throne by a people who rejoiced to be rid of a sovereign whose rule was grasping and tyrannical. The new monarch was one to whose character it is very difficult to do full justice. All that is attractive in person, manners, and accomplishments is mixed

Accession and  
character of  
Henry VIII.

with much that is atrocious and revolting in actions. His handsome ruddy face, his gay and lively manner, his active and manly frame, his skill in manly exercises, his kingly profusion, his youthful impetuosity, won from the people at the outset an admiring regard which the display of all his vices, the hard experience of all his tyranny, never wholly destroyed. He was the incarnation of stubborn self-will. From a purpose once formed it was well-nigh impossible to turn him. He was bigoted in his belief, arrogant in his self-assertion. He moved onward to the gratifying of his royal will and pleasure with a resistless march that swept before it all that is kindly and humane. It is an aggravation of his guilt that nature had endowed him with a vigorous intellect, with high talents, fearless courage, firmness, and sagacity well fitting the ruler of a nation, and that in taste and in solid acquirements he showed his love of, and capacity for, theological learning. With all his faults and crimes, he was at least a monarch that Englishmen will never think of with the contempt awarded to the weak indolence and ignoble vice of some that have brought shame upon the throne.

In April, 1509, Henry VIII. succeeded his father; on June 7th he married his brother Arthur's widow, Catharine of Aragon; on June 24th they were crowned at Westminster. The new king's chief ministers were Fox, Bishop of Winchester, and the Earl of Surrey (afterwards Duke of Norfolk). He did not obey his father's injunction as to restoring moneys to those who had been plundered in the name of law; but he did let vengeance loose, to the people's joy, against the ministers of evil. Empson and Dudley were beheaded on a charge of high treason, and the crew of informers who had served them were exposed in the pillory to the pelting of the pitiless mob. The wealth amassed by Henry VII. fast vanished in lavish outlay on the pleasures dear to his gay and gallant son. In masque and tournament, in dance and banquet, the days and nights flew on. In the pleasures which he loved, and in the business of state which he never neglected, Henry soon found an able helper in the ambitious man whose name will be forever coupled with his king's.

Prodigality  
of Henry VIII.

Thomas Wolsey, born at Ipswich in 1471, and educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. before he was fifteen, had won by zealous service Henry VII.'s high regard, and had risen to be Dean of Lincoln in 1508. Under the new king he was made a privy-councillor, and soon mounted, by his merits as a man of business and by a courtier's arts, into the first place in his master's favour. His power and his splendour became second only to the king's. Greedy in acquiring and lavish in spending, energetic, enterprising, and sagacious, this extraordinary man excited envy by his swift mounting to giddy heights; and fell with a great fall, when his arrogance offended, and his supposed double-dealing enraged the king.

Character of  
Wolsey.

It is due to him to note his patronage of learning, as the founder of Christ Church College, Oxford. After his fall Henry was much more of a tyrant than before.

For nearly half the reign he was virtually chief minister, and in seven years from its commencement had become Bishop of Lincoln, Archbishop of York, lord chancellor, a cardinal, and papal legate in England. As lord chancellor, he showed high character and capacity. Impartiality and keen insight guided him to judicious decisions.

Wolsey's  
career.

The old dreams of French conquest led Henry, in 1512, to join a league against Louis XII., composed of the Pope, Ferdinand of Spain, Venice, and the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany. Little of gain or glory was the issue. In 1513 Henry crossed to Calais, and, with Maximilian, captured Terouenne (near Boulogne), and Tournay, in Flanders. During the siege of Terouenne, in August, there was fought at Guinegate, south-east of Boulogne, the *Battle of the Spurs*, when Henry drove the French cavalry in hasty, ignominious flight.

Battle of  
the Spurs.

The war with France brought into the field the old French ally, Scotland; and Henry's brother-in-law, James IV., invaded England with an army numbering 50,000 men. The Earl of Surrey, with a force of half the number, met him at *Flodden*, in Northumberland, and inflicted on him a defeat, the most disastrous in the

Battle of  
Flodden.

history of Scotland. Ere the day was done thousands of Scotsmen, all Scotland's best and bravest nobles and Scotland's king, lay dead upon the field.

In 1514 peace was made with France, and Louis XII. married Henry's younger sister Mary, but died on the following New Year's Day. Peace also with France and Scotland followed Flodden, and the queen, Margaret, Henry's sister, became regent there during the minority of her son. Francis I. succeeded Louis in France, and Louis' widow, Mary, married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

In 1516 Ferdinand of Spain died, and in 1519 his successor Charles became, on Maximilian's death, the Emperor Charles V. of Germany. Charles was the most powerful monarch of his time. Spain, Naples, Sicily, the new world of America, with its exhaustless mines of silver, the Netherlands, and Austria, all owned him for their lord. Francis I. was a bitterly disappointed candidate for the imperial crown of Germany; and from this time dates the enmity between Germany and France which has continued down to the present.

Strong in his insular position, Henry was an ally well worth securing by either of the two great continental sovereigns. Hence came long intrigues, in which Wolsey played a chief part, ever striving for, and hoping by the help of Charles V. to ultimately reach, the papal throne. In April, 1520, Charles stayed for some days as Henry's guest in England; and in May of the same year Henry and Francis met near Calais, on a part of English territory, called, from the rich and gay display made by the courts, the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. After some weeks of the splendid sports and feasting dear both to Henry and to Francis, Henry and Charles met again in Flanders, and for the time Charles V. secured Henry for an ally.

An alliance of the Pope (Leo X.), Charles V., and Henry against France was soon afterwards brought about by Wolsey. In 1521 Henry's assertion against Luther of accepted Catholic doctrines, in his book *On the Seven Sacraments*, obtained for him from

Peace with  
France and  
Scotland.

Charles V.  
of Germany.

Field of the  
Cloth of Gold.

"Defender  
of the  
Faith."

Leo X. the complimentary title *Fidei Defensor* ("Defender of the Faith") ✓

In December the Pope died, and Wolsey was disappointed by the election to the papacy of Adrian VI., a Fleming who had been tutor to Charles V. In the same year Edward Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, son of the Buckingham beheaded by Richard III., was beheaded on a frivolous charge of high treason.

Infringe-  
ment of  
Magna  
Charta.

Throughout this reign illegal usurpation of powers by the crown was constantly increasing. In defiance of "Magna Charta," arbitrary imprisonment of the subject became common. The odious system of forced loans called *benevolences* took the place of legal taxation. From 1515 to 1522 no parliament was summoned, and none again from 1523 to 1530. Laws passed by the Houses were superseded by royal proclamations; and a servile parliament passed in favour of oppression many statutes which the next reign saw repealed. ✓

In 1522 Charles V. again visited England to soothe Wolsey for his disappointment as to the papacy. War against France was now declared by Henry; but want of means made English efforts fail.

Sir Thomas  
More.

Next year a stand against the insolence of Wolsey and the tyranny of Henry was made in the House of Commons by the Speaker, More, when he asserted parliamentary privileges, and by the House, when they refused to vote the moneys demanded by the crown. More, one of the wisest of Englishmen, a learned lawyer, an eloquent speaker, a witty, genial companion and friend, stood high in Henry's favour. Wolsey went to the House of Commons, and in the king's name asked for the large sum at that time of £800,000 as a supply. Met with a studied silence, he assumed his haughtiest tone, and was informed by More that the ancient privileges of the Commons forbade an answer from the Speaker save by instruction of the House. Half only of the money asked was voted.

This year Wolsey was a second time disappointed in his hopes of the papacy. On Adrian VI.'s death, Charles V. helped one of the Medicis to become Pope Clement VII., and Wolsey turned his thoughts to a French alliance. In

1525 the total defeat and capture of Francis I. at Pavia, in Italy, by Charles V.'s forces, rendered the support of Wolsey of little further value to the emperor. After a vain effort to get Charles V. to join him in an invasion of France, Henry veered round to the French cause, and in 1527 a treaty was made between Henry and Francis I., who had been released in the previous year. By this treaty all English claims to the crown of France were finally renounced, and the two powers aimed, without effect, at clearing Italy of the imperialist troops which, under the Duke of Bourbon, a renegade to his country, had taken and sacked Rome, and made a prisoner of the Pope.

✦ About this time appeared the first symptoms of Wolsey's loss of favour with the king. Illegal exactions had roused the people to the point of revolt, and their hatred was mainly of Wolsey. The king was growing restive under his arrogant demeanour; but things were for a time kept quiet by Wolsey's judicious present to the king of the new mansion, *Hampton Court*. In 1527, too, Henry started on the course which was the immediate outward cause of the great religious revolution in this country called the *Reformation*. We are carefully to avoid the thought that Henry ever was himself a Protestant. He lived and died a holder of the religious faith of Rome, though motives far removed, indeed, from questions of religion, caused him to make the church in England wholly independent of the papal power.

Catharine of Aragon's only living issue was the Princess Mary. Henry desired a son as his successor; and of a son

Catharine was never likely now to be the mother. It is probable that Henry was weary of his partner, who was six years older than himself, and that he had already cast his eyes upon her beautiful and vivacious maid of honour, Anne, daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn. Henry declared he had doubts as to the lawful nature of his union with a deceased brother's wife. In May, 1529, a papal commission, composed of Wolsey and a special legate, the Italian Cardinal

Treaty between

France and England.

Rupture with the Pope.

Preliminaries to a divorce from Catharine.

Campeggio, began to try the question in London. Queen Catharine, on the opening of the court, refused to plead, or to recognise the court. Her appeal was supported at Rome by the influence of her nephew the emperor. After two months Campeggio stopped the trial; and both parties, Henry and his queen, were summoned to appear before the Pope. ✕

This caused Wolsey's ruin. Rightly or wrongly, Henry suspected him of a share in the proceeding, and the whispers of Anne Boleyn against the cardinal envenomed Henry's feelings. In October, Wolsey's high office as lord chancellor passed to Sir Thomas More, and his magnificent London house, York Place, with all its costly belongings, became the king's. In August of this year the treaty of Cambray had established peace abroad; and Henry could now give his whole mind to the divorce. Wolsey did not long survive his disgrace. Henry to some degree relented, and gave him a full pardon in the spring of 1530; but in the autumn he was arrested as a traitor, and died at Leicester Abbey on his way to London.

Fall of  
Wolsey.

The fall of Wolsey brought to the front Thomas Cranmer and Thomas Cromwell. Cranmer, a fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, was an able theologian, who was undoubtedly an instrument in promoting the great religious changes of this and the succeeding reign. Cromwell, once Wolsey's servant, gained attention first by his faithful and courageous defence of his old master in his fallen fortunes; and he rose fast in Henry's favour.

Cranmer and  
Cromwell.

Cranmer's suggestion, that the question, *whether the laws of God allow a man to marry his brother's widow*, should be submitted to the divines at all the universities of Europe, caught Henry's fancy, and was acted on at once. The English agents obtained favourable replies from several of the universities of France and Italy; and, not without much difficulty, an opinion was obtained from the English universities also, that the marriage with a brother's widow was forbidden by the law of God.

Opinion of  
the univer-  
sities on the  
divorce.

In 1531 proceedings were taken by the crown to make

all the English clergy liable to the penalties of the act of *Præmunire* for having submitted to Wolsey as Henry acknowledged papal legate. The clergy offered to pay a large sum for a pardon, and the king accepted the proposal, only on their acknowledging him as *supreme head of the church and clergy of England*. They did so, but with the addition of the ingenious and important clause, "in so far as is permitted by the law of Christ." In 1532 the legislative powers of Convocation were practically surrendered to the king, and an Act of Parliament transferred to him the tribute of *annates*, or first-fruits, hitherto paid to the pope, being the first year's income of all sees when a new bishop or archbishop was appointed. Sir Thomas More, who firmly held the Pope's supremacy, at once resigned his office as lord chancellor.

The Church of England was thus made subject to the State, and the gauntlet of defiance to the Pope was thrown down, by measures aimed at his authority and influence. After declining to appear before the papal court at Rome in the matter of the divorce, Henry, in January, 1533, privately married Anne Boleyn. In that year's parliament an Act was passed forbidding all appeals to Rome in ecclesiastical suits. In May, 1533, Cranmer, now Archbishop of Canterbury, pronounced the marriage with Catharine null and void from the beginning, and that with Anne Boleyn valid, and she was publicly crowned queen at Westminster.

In September the princess Elizabeth was born. Catharine lived in retirement in England until 1536. In 1534 an Act of Parliament ratified Cranmer's sentence of divorce, confirmed the marriage with Anne Boleyn, and settled the crown on Henry's children by Anne, to the exclusion of the Princess Mary, Catharine's daughter. All opposition to this statute was declared to be treason. The papal power in England was now brought to an end, and the English Church was separated from Rome by the *Act of Supremacy*, declaring the King of England "the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England." The withholding or denial of this title was made a crime of high

treason, and Henry was thus armed for his future acts of tyranny. The Pope replied by threats of excommunication, which had no terrors for Henry. \*

The parliament, which, except when the pockets of the people were concerned, seemed to regard itself as existing only to register the decrees of a too-powerful monarch, had sown the seeds which were to bring forth an abundant crop of vengeance and of plunder for the king. The first victims of note were the venerable Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, who had been already sent to the Tower for refusing to take the oath, which involved in its terms an approval of the divorce and of the marriage with Anne, together with a promise to maintain the succession of Anne's offspring to the throne. Under the new laws of supremacy and treason several of the clergy died at Tyburn for denying the king's new title, and a pious lady, named Elizabeth Barton, known as the *Holy Maid of Kent*, and several of her friends and advisers, were executed for denouncing the king's divorce and new marriage. In June, 1535, Fisher was beheaded at Tower Hill, under an act of attainder, for refusing to acknowledge the king's supremacy in the church, and within a few days Sir Thomas More died for the same cause on the same spot.

The new Pope, Paul III., drew up a bull of deposition against Henry, which, through the interposition of Francis I., was not issued till three years afterwards. The breach with Rome had now been made irreparable by the violent deaths of Rome's chief supporters in the land. It was in the first days of 1536 that Queen Catharine died, her last written words being tender expressions of forgiveness in a letter to the king. Henry proceeded now to despoil the church. Commissioners, with Thomas Cromwell at their head as vicar-general, wielding the power of Henry as head of the church, visited certain religious houses, and after inspection of them, made report to parliament against them. An Act of Parliament, in 1536, suppressed the *Lesser Monasteries* (those with incomes under £200 a year), and the revenues of 376 establishments,

Opposition  
to the new  
régime.

Suppression  
of the lesser  
monasteries.

amounting to more than £30,000 a year, with all their plate and other goods, became the king's.

Wales became, in this same year, really united with England. The remains of feudal power held by Wales with the barons were abolished, English laws were established, and Welsh members were elected to the House of Commons.

The same year beheld the tragic end of the fair queen Anne. In May, Anne Boleyn was tried by a jury of peers, condemned for having been unfaithful, and beheaded in the Tower.

The day after her death Henry married Jane, daughter of Sir John Seymour. A new parliament was summoned, which excluded from the succession both Catharine's and Anne's issue, and settled the crown on the issue of Jane Seymour, reserving to the king the right of disposing of the crown by will, if need arose from want of heirs. Cranmer declared that the marriage with Anne had been, like Catharine's, null and void from the beginning. The ground alleged was that she had been previously betrothed to the Lord Percy.

There were at this time three chief religious parties in the State. There was the party that held the Pope to be supreme head of the church. It had been lately awed by More's and Fisher's fate. There was the king's party, rejecting papal authority, but holding all the doctrines of the Roman Catholic faith. Its chiefs were Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and the Duke of Norfolk. There was a Reformation party, rejecting both papal authority and Roman Catholic doctrines, and its great adherents were Cromwell and Cranmer.

Throughout the reign the doctrines of the Church of Rome remained the established religion, and the very Act of 1534 which put an end to papal power in England declared, through parliament, the adherence of the realm to the Catholic faith. The doctrines of the Reformation were boldly taught in Germany by Martin Luther, who had renounced the Pope's authority. Those doctrines had obtained the name of *Protestantism*, from

Execution of  
Anne Boleyn.

Marriage  
with Jane  
Seymour.

Progress of  
the religious  
movement.

Origin of the  
term Protes-  
tantism.

the *protest* in 1529 against the decision of the Diet of Spires condemning the Reformation.

Great efforts were made by the Protestant party to supply the laity with translations of the Scriptures in their own tongue. The first printed English New Testament, translated by William Tyndale, had been issued at Antwerp in 1526, and the first English Bible, complete, also by Tyndale, appeared at Zurich in 1535. The law still forbade the printing of Bibles in England, and in 1535 Tyndale's version was publicly burned at Smithfield. In 1536, however, a complete translation of the Bible, based upon Tyndale's and executed by Miles Coverdale, afterwards Bishop of Exeter, was dedicated to the king, and a copy was placed by order in all parish churches.

The Bible  
placed in  
parish  
churches.

Many of the common people still held to the old faith. Unable to make distinctions in points of doctrine, they could estimate the loss incurred by them in the suppression of the monasteries. When no law existed for the relief of the poor, the benefits of alms, food, and medicine, dispensed at every convent and monastery in the land, were justly valued by the needy and afflicted. In 1536 there was a formidable insurrection in the north of England, called the *Pilgrimage of Grace*. It was joined by the Archbishop of York and many of the nobles and the landed gentry, and the rebels captured Hull, York, and Pontefract Castle. Their avowed objects were to restore the Church, put down the new doctrines, and remove evil counsellors from the king. The Duke of Norfolk first cajoled them by promises into a partial dispersion, and then fell on the remnant with the terrors of martial law. The matter ended with the usual fall of heads at Tower Hill.

The Pilgrim-  
age of  
Grace.

In October, 1537, Jane Seymour had a son, to Henry's great joy, turned to grief at the mother's death a few days afterwards. The young prince reigned in due time as Edward VI. The defeat of the insurrection in the north was followed, three years later, by the suppression of the *Greater Monasteries*, over 600 in number, and of over 2000 chantries, chapels, and hospitals.

Suppression  
of greater  
monasteries."

The revenues of these religious houses, to the amount of more than £160,000 a year, became the private property of the king, and of favoured courtiers who were the ancestors of some of our present wealthy nobles. The lands attached to the livings held throughout the country by monastic clergy were also seized, and passed into the hands of laymen. A portion of the wealth of the monasteries was given to the foundation of schools, and the establishment of six new bishoprics; five of which, Oxford, Peterborough, Chester, Bristol, and Gloucester (the last two once united, but now again separate sees), still exist; the sixth was Westminster. One consequence of this suppression of the monasteries was that the country was crowded with beggars and sturdy vagabonds, whom the law whipped, deprived of their ears, and, for persistence in idling, hanged. ✓

Reginald Pole had published a treatise on the *Unity of the Church*, in which Henry's divorce, marriage to Anne Boleyn, and assumption of supremacy in the church, were severely condemned. He was a second cousin of the king, being grandson of Edward IV.'s brother, the Duke of Clarence. Unable to reach Pole, who was safe abroad, Henry seized in England the cardinal's nearest relatives and dearest friends, and wreaked his vengeance upon them. Lord Montague (the cardinal's brother) and the Marquis of Exeter (a grandson of Edward IV.) were among those executed. Pole's aged mother, Margaret Plantagenet, Countess of Salisbury, was seized, imprisoned, and, in 1541, beheaded.

Henry's Roman Catholic views were shown in 1539, by the passing of the *Statute of the Six Articles*. This law ordered all men, under penalty of burning, to admit six points of the Roman doctrine, of which the chief was the change of the bread and wine (during the service of the *Mass*) into the real body and blood of Christ. The influence of Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, had much to do with the passing of this enactment. It was felt as a severe blow by Cranmer and the Protestant party. The lowest depth of shame was reached by parliament, at this time, when it surrendered at a stroke the whole sub-

Cardinal  
Pole.

Statute of the  
Six Articles.

stance of the nation's liberties by an Act declaring that a royal proclamation had the same force as a statute passed by the Houses.

Cromwell now sought to strengthen the Protestant cause by finding Henry a Protestant wife. The lady selected was Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. Her Marriage with Anne of Cleves. sister was wife of the Elector of Saxony, the head of the Protestant League in Germany. Henry was taken, it seems, by a flattering portrait which he saw of her, painted by Holbein. The treaty of marriage was concluded, and Anne of Cleves came to England for the ceremony. The king then saw, to his disgust, an ungraceful and ill-favoured lady, who could talk no language but Dutch, of which Henry knew not a word. The marriage took place in January, 1540, and convocation and parliament pleased Henry by granting a divorce in July on some frivolous pretence. The fourth wife was then pensioned off, and lived contented and retired in England until 1557.

The king had, in spite of his annoyance, made Cromwell Earl of Essex, but the matter rankled in his mind and led to Cromwell's ruin. The nobles hated him, and the powerful Roman Catholic party also naturally had very strong feelings against him. Henry allowed him to be arrested on a charge of high treason, and a bill of attainder passed both Houses of Parliament. In July, 1540, he was beheaded on Tower Hill. Execution of Thomas Cromwell.

The king's fifth wife was Catharine Howard, a sister of the Duke of Norfolk. Norfolk and Gardiner were now supreme, and death and torture were the lot of the Protestants, while the hangman made short work of Roman Catholics who denied the king's supremacy. For a year and a half Henry was charmed with his new wife; but she was beheaded in February, 1542, for gross misconduct, and little doubt exists as to her guilt. Marriage with Catharine Howard.

The same year saw England again at war with Scotland. In 1513 James V., a child two years old, had succeeded his father, James IV. For fifteen James V. of Scotland. years, a long minority, so often baneful to Scotland's

interests, had witnessed constant struggles for power amongst the Scottish nobles. In 1528 James V. assumed the government, and from the first was hostile to the Protestant party in Scotland. He married the French Princess Mary of Guise, a Roman Catholic, and Scotland was the scene of much turmoil. The Scottish king rejected all advances made by Henry, who wished his nephew to take part with him against the Pope, and the borders of the two countries were crossed and recrossed, season after season, by the plundering parties of both nations.

In the autumn of 1542 Henry proclaimed war, and the Scots suffered defeat at Solway Moss, in Dumfriesshire, where an army, seized with panic, fled from a few hundred English horse. The shame of the defeat helped to kill James V., already ailing, and he died a few days after the birth of his daughter, the famous *Mary Queen of Scots*.

Henry now tried to bring about the union of the Scottish and English crowns, by arranging for his son Prince Edward's marriage to the baby Princess Mary of Scotland. Cardinal Beaton, the leader of the Roman Catholic party in Scotland, frustrated this, formed an alliance with France, and religious confusion continued in Scotland. Next year Henry and Charles V. declared war against France. The king went himself to Calais with an army; but nothing was done beyond the capture of Boulogne, though the war dragged on for three years.

The pains taken by Henry to form a really powerful English navy are a welcome contrast to the tragic horrors of his reign. Dockyards at Portsmouth, Deptford, and Woolwich, laws designed to promote the growth of timber for the vessels, provision for the regular pay of officers and crews, bear witness to the king's energy and wisdom. The country reaped the benefit of Henry's prudence when, in 1545, a powerful French fleet, with troops intending an invasion, appeared off the Isle of Wight. Lord Lisle, with a fleet inferior in number, but including his huge flag-ship the *Great Harry*, met them and sent the Frenchmen sailing home discomfited.

Birth of Mary  
Queen of  
Scots.

War with  
France.

The navy of  
the period.

In July, 1543, Henry married his sixth and last wife, Catharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer. She was a Protestant, but her unblemished goodness and her prudent care preserved her in her high and dangerous position.

Marriage  
with Catharine Parr.

In 1544 the king allowed some progress to be made in the direction of Protestantism by the publication of the Litany in English, and in 1545 some forms of prayer in English, for morning and evening service, were permitted. All prayers had hitherto been in the Latin tongue.

Forms of  
prayer in  
English.

In 1546 the Reformation in Scotland was for a time helped by the murder of its opponent, Beaton, at St. Andrews.

Scotland.

The end of the long eventful reign of the Tudor tyrant was drawing near. His temper, rendered furious by failing health, made all around him tremble for their safety. His last victim was the Duke of Norfolk's son, the Earl of Surrey. A gallant soldier, graceful poet, accomplished courtier and scholar, Surrey was the most promising Englishman of his day. A rash tongue proved his ruin. He uttered angry words when he was recalled from the post of governor of Boulogne, and set himself up as a political rival of the Earl of Hertford, Edward Seymour, brother of the King's beloved third wife. An Act of Parliament had settled the succession on Prince Edward, with reversion of the crown, if he died heirless, to the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth, and the king meant Hertford to be prince Edward's guardian. Norfolk and Surrey were arrested, and Surrey, after a hasty trial for high treason, was beheaded on January 19, 1547. His father barely escaped with his life. A bill of attainder against Norfolk passed the House of Lords without inquiry, was hurried through the Commons, and received the king's assent.

Execution of  
Surrey.

The warrant for the execution had gone to the Tower, when news came that the king had died. The Lieutenant of the Tower paused for orders, and the privy council stayed the headsman's hand. Henry was buried at Windsor. He left three children—

Death of  
Henry VIII.

Edward, now nine years old, Jane Seymour's son ; Mary, aged thirty-one, daughter of Catharine of Aragon ; Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn's daughter, aged thirteen. In this order they succeeded to the throne.

## CHAPTER II

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR (*continued*)—EDWARD VI., 1547–1553 ;  
MARY I., 1553–1558

THE new king, **Edward VI.**, was a pious boy, well instructed, and warmly in favour of the Protestant doctrines. During his short life he was regarded by the Protestant party with the hopeful affection given to one who promises to be a wise and amiable, if not a vigorous, ruler. The great fact of his reign is that during it the Reformation was effected.

The Earl of Hertford and his party in the council set aside at once the will of Henry VIII., which had entrusted the governing power to sixteen executors, so chosen as to hold the balance even, during the minority, between the Protestants and Roman Catholics. Hertford became *Protector*, with the rank of *Duke of Somerset*, and governed in his royal nephew's name. To Somerset, and Cranmer, the English Reformation is due. The Earl of Southampton, the head of the Roman Catholic party, was deprived of the chancellorship and removed from the council, and Somerset became the virtual sole ruler of the land.

On February 28, 1547, Edward VI. was crowned at Westminster. The Protector Somerset promptly took measures to bring about the marriage, planned by the late king, between Edward and Mary of Scotland. Francis I. of France had died soon after Henry, and Henry II., the new French king, was in alliance with the Scots Catholics. Somerset invaded Scotland in September, and defeated the Scottish regent, the

Accession of  
Edward VI.

Somerset  
becomes  
Protector.

Battle of  
Pinkie.

Earl of Arran, at the battle of *Pinkie*, near Musselburgh. Still the Scots would not yield, and the young Queen Mary was sent to France, where she was betrothed to the king's eldest son, and brought up as a Roman Catholic.

During this year the penal laws of the late reign were all repealed by parliament, as well as the statutes of Henry IV. and Henry V. against the Lollards. The crime of treason became again what it was under Edward III.—to plot the king's death, to make war against him, or to help his enemies; the *Statute of Six Articles* ceased to maintain Roman Catholic doctrines; the royal proclamation had no more the force of law. ✓

Repeal of  
obnoxious  
laws.

A general visitation was made by commissioners through all the dioceses, to prepare the way for the adoption of Protestant ritual and teaching. The chief opponents of the new religion amongst the clergy were Bishops Gardiner and Bonner. Gardiner was committed by the council to the Fleet Prison. The appointment of all bishops was assigned to the king, and all the remaining revenues of ecclesiastical bodies were transferred to the crown. In 1548, by an order of council, the images which had been objects of veneration were removed from churches, and a new communion-service took the place of the service of the Mass. In the same year Crahmer compiled the *First Book of Common Prayer*, excluding from the service what were alleged to be the errors of the Church of Rome; and in January, 1549, the *First Act of Uniformity* enjoined the use of this book in all churches.

First Book  
of Common  
Prayer.

While Cranmer was toiling at building up the new religion, Somerset was dealing with plots against his rule. His brother, Lord Seymour, the husband of the queen-dowager, Catharine Parr, gained over many nobles, jealous of the Protector's power, and planned a rising against him. Seymour was beheaded on Tower Hill, under an act of attainder, in March, 1549. Another dangerous rival of Somerset's was Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of Henry VII.'s Dudley. The late king had made him Lord Lisle, and at Edward's accession he was made Earl of Warwick. He is best known in history as Duke of Northumberland.

Execution of  
Lord Sey-  
mour.

Amidst the contests of the great and the religious changes, the sufferings of the common people enforced their claim to notice. The immediate hardships caused by the suppression of the monasteries have been already seen. The large supplies of gold and silver from America had lowered the value of money; the price of food was raised, while wages kept at the same level. The nobles, enriched by the church lands, increased the rents exacted by the monks from their tenants, and labourers suffered with the farmers who employed them. The land inclosed for parks, and turned into sheep-walks, from the tempting price of wool, seemed to the starving but a wanton waste of food that might be had by tillage, and their distress goaded them to rebellion. Armed risings in all parts had to be dealt with. Most were put down at once, but the men of Devonshire and Norfolk gave more trouble. An army of ten thousand men in Devonshire, demanding the restoration of the old religion and of half the abbey-lands, was attacked and routed by Lord Russell, a nobleman who owed his wealth to the confiscations denounced by the rebels.

In Norfolk a man named Ket, a tanner, was the leader of a force which it took the Earl of Warwick, backed by six thousand soldiers, to defeat. A large number of rebels fell in the action, and Ket was hanged at Norwich.

These troubles led to the fall of Somerset, odious to the Roman Catholic party, for his support of the new religion, and for the pulling down of bishops' palaces and churches in the Strand, in London, to build himself a mansion. The name, though not the building, still remains as *Somerset House*. In October, 1549, the crisis came. The Earl of Warwick led the hostile party, and Somerset, outvoted and destitute of help, was sent to the Tower. Parliament deprived him of all his offices, and Warwick succeeded to his power, without the title of *Protector*.

The Roman Catholic party now hoped for reaction, but Warwick, created Duke of Northumberland, turned round

on his old faith, and pushed on the Reformation. The Scriptures were now ordered to be read in English in all churches, and a *Book of Homilies*, or sermons, was issued for the clergy to preach. Several of the Roman Catholic bishops, including Gardiner, were deprived of their sees. Miles Coverdale became Bishop of Exeter; John Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester; Nicholas Ridley, Bishop of London. The preaching of Hugh Latimer, late Bishop of Worcester, did much for the new doctrines with the people who crowded round him at the cross in old St. Paul's Churchyard. Early in 1550 Somerset was released, and regained some share of popularity, though not of power.

Book of  
Homilies.

In 1551 the now established faith of the Protestants was summed up in the *Forty-two Articles of Religion*, which, under Elizabeth, became the present *Thirty-nine Articles* of the Church of England. Next year the *Second Book of Common Prayer* was issued.

Second Book  
of Common  
Prayer.

Amid all changes the Princess Mary stuck to the Roman Catholic faith, and defied the king and council. Northumberland had made peace with France and Scotland, and was devising schemes of advancement for himself. The first thing was, to be rid of Somerset, who was arrested, tried, and condemned for felony, on a charge of plotting death to Northumberland, and beheaded on Tower Hill in January, 1552.

Execution of  
Somerset.

The failing health of the young king led Northumberland to try to secure the throne for one of his own family. He represented to Edward that the Princess Mary should be set aside from the succession, as being sure to restore Roman Catholicism; that both she and Elizabeth were illegitimate by Act of Parliament; that Mary Queen of Scots was not to be thought of, as a Roman Catholic and as betrothed to a foreign prince who would be King of France. This being so, they must fall back on Henry VIII.'s will, which (failing his own children and their issue) had settled the crown upon the heirs of his sister, Mary Tudor, Duchess of Suffolk. The eldest of her three grand-daughters (her daughter having married Henry Grey, Marquis of Dorset) was the Lady Jane Grey, now

Designs of  
Northum-  
berland.

sixteen years of age. The meaning of all this was, that Lady Jane Grey was married to Lord Guildford Dudley, fourth son of Northumberland, and her succession would make the father-in-law virtual King of England.

The young king was persuaded to comply, and by a legal instrument or deed, called *letters patent*, left the crown to the Lady Jane Grey. On June 21, 1553, the council signed the letters patent, and the king died on July 6 at Greenwich, and was buried at Westminster.

Three days after Edward VI.'s death Northumberland allowed the fact to become known. He had been trying, without success, to entrap the Princesses Elizabeth and Mary into his power. On July 10 Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed queen, greatly against her will. The council were, in the main, supporters of Mary's right, and the mass of the nation went with them. Northumberland's ambitious attempt failed. His troops deserted him on his march into Norfolk to oppose Mary, and he was sent to the Tower, along with Lady Jane Grey and Lord Guildford Dudley.

On August 3 Mary entered London in triumph, and proceeded to the Tower, from which Gardiner and other Roman Catholics were now released. On August 22 Northumberland was beheaded, after confessing himself guilty of treason. Sentence of death was passed on Lady Jane and Dudley, but was not executed at the time. Gardiner, again Bishop of Winchester, was made lord chancellor, and Mary was crowned by him on October 1. The Roman Catholic form of worship was fully restored; Bonner and other Roman Catholic bishops recovered their sees; Cranmer, Hooper, Ridley, and Latimer were imprisoned.

The first Acts of the parliament declared the queen legitimate, and repealed all the statutes of Edward VI.'s reign that had to do with religion. Mary, the first queen who ever reigned in England, has been branded, through popular hatred, with the title "bloody." Fond of bloodshed for its own sake, or for the

Death of  
Edward VI.

Lady Jane  
Grey pro-  
claimed  
queen.

Restoration  
of the Ro-  
man Catholic  
Religion.

Character of  
Queen Mary.

evil uses of ambition, she certainly was not. She lived in an age of religious intolerance, when the punishment of those who professed erroneous doctrines was believed to be a religious duty. She had inherited from her mother, Catharine of Aragon, a gloomy temperament; her father gave her the qualities of obstinate self-will, bigoted adherence to her opinions, and cruel and tyrannical severity in making others yield. Uncomely in person, and narrow in understanding, she had the courage and the vigour of her race when difficulty and danger were to be met.

Mary was over thirty-seven years old when she came to the throne. Her cousin, the Emperor Charles V. of Germany, the champion of the Roman Catholic faith abroad, was on the alert to push the cause in England, <sup>Insurrection of Wyatt.</sup> and proposed a marriage of Mary with his son, who was soon to become Philip II. of Spain. Mary was glad enough to wed a prince kindred both in character and blood; but the nation disliked the idea of the Spanish match. The Protestants feared, with good cause, for their religion; patriotic Roman Catholics, loving their faith, wished also for the independence of their native land. Fear led to insurrection in the early spring of 1554. In Kent, Sir Thomas Wyatt rose, marched on London after overthrowing the Duke of Norfolk at Rochester, and put the Roman Catholics in a panic by the seizure of Westminster and Southwark. Mary's presence of mind and courage led to Wyatt's defeat in the city; and the Tower gates closed on him. Lady Jane Grey's father, the Duke of Suffolk (late Marquis of Dorset), made an abortive attempt in the midland counties, and in Devonshire the rebels had as little success. The Duke of Suffolk's movement sealed his daughter's fate.

Wyatt and Suffolk died by the headsman's hand; and on February 12, 1554, perished that gracious lady, Jane Grey, the companion of the young King Edward in his studies, the gentle and the learned student of Plato. She died at seventeen years of age, <sup>Execution of Lady Jane Grey.</sup> beheaded in the Tower, after seeing, with the serene courage of true piety, mixed with the grief and horror of true love, her husband Dudley's corpse carried headless past her.

Amidst these troubles, her prudence preserved the Princess Elizabeth.

In July, 1554, Philip and Mary were married at Winchester. He had the rank and title of King-Consort, but the government was vested in the queen alone. Neither Philip's manners, which were cold, haughty, and repelling, nor his character, which was in all respects detestable—a mixture of impurity in life with unrelenting cruelty and intolerance—could win the love or respect of Englishmen. He lived in England but a year. No child was born to bless the union. He left in 1555, and saw Mary again only for a few days in 1557. He had treated his wife with neglect from the first, in spite of her affection for him; and he soon tired of a jealous bride eleven years older than himself. His sole regard for England lay in the hope of using England's wealth and power against his rival, France. When he departed, the sole feeling of England towards Philip was that the country was well rid of him.

In November, 1555, in pursuance of the policy of reconciliation to the papal see, the queen received as papal legate her kinsman, Cardinal Reginald Pole. He thereupon pronounced, by the Pope's order, that England and the parliament were absolved from the guilt of their past heresy and restored again to union with the church. The statute of Henry IV.'s reign against heretics was restored.

In 1555 the persecution began. The queen's chief minister was Gardiner; Bonner, Bishop of London, was his agent in the deeds of persecution. Many who refused to conform with the queen's wishes as regards religious worship suffered grievous persecution, and not unfrequently the death penalty was inflicted. Among these were Ridley, Latimer, Rogers, and Cranmer. Cranmer's offence in the queen's eyes was aggravated by the part he had taken in the divorce of her mother, Catherine of Aragon; and him it was determined not only to kill but to degrade, for in those days people went to extreme lengths of cruelty in dealing with opponents in religion who chanced to come within their power. He first recanted the Protestant creed and afterwards took back his

recantation and denounced the Pope and the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. It did not suit the queen's purposes to have such a bold opponent within her kingdom, championing doctrines which she held in abhorrence; and accordingly Cranmer was tried, and condemned to the stake.

Many clergymen fled from the storm to a refuge at Geneva and other Protestant cities on the Continent. Among these were Coverdale, Bishop of Exeter, and Fox, famous as author of the *Book of Martyrs*. Pole succeeded Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury. A subservient parliament, largely made up of lords and gentlemen enriched by plunder and confiscation, sanctioned almost whatever the queen wished, when it was found that their ill-gotten wealth was not to be returned. From Protestants to Roman Catholics, and back again to Protestants in the next reign, they changed their creed according to the pressure of the time.

Meanwhile the persecution continued, and in the three and a half years it lasted, nearly three hundred persons perished at the stake.

In 1555 Philip succeeded to the Spanish dominions by his father's abdication. Master of Spain and of the Netherlands, he aimed at universal rule in Europe, and in 1557 got Mary to join him in an attack on France. At the battle of St. Quentin, in the north of France, an English force helped him to defeat the French army.

Mary had long been failing in her health, and suffering in mind and heart from disappointment at her want of children, and at Philip's coldness. The opening of the next year brought her a fearful blow. The fortress of Calais, England's sole French possession, held since its capture by Edward III., was surprised and taken by the Duke of Guise. This loss enraged the nation. It was the weakness of the garrison left there by the imprudence of the government that had caused the disaster.

The cup of Mary's misery was full. Regret for the loss of Calais, dread for the future, love outraged and

despised, were the sufferings that killed Mary, and should mix compassion for the woman and the wife with the judgment passed upon her as a religious persecutor. She died on November 17, 1558, and was buried at Westminster. Cardinal Pole died on the same day.

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### CHAPTER III

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR (*continued*)—ELIZABETH, A.D. 1558-1603

ELIZABETH was twenty-five years old when she came to the throne. She was the ablest sovereign of her time. Her character presents to us an extraordinary assemblage of qualities, giving her a high and peculiar place amongst monarchs. Her personal gifts were such as to command the admiration and the awe of all beholders. A handsome face, a tall and majestic figure, were, when she chose, made more attractive still by the bluff and hearty graciousness of manner which had given her father popularity at the beginning of his reign. From Henry she inherited the Tudor vigour and imperiousness. Upon occasion, she could yield to passionate outbreaks of a temper which was, in general, under a firm control. Determined in carrying out her purposes, wherever it was possible, she showed wondrous tact and skill in yielding to her people's will so as to gain love and credit by compliance. Her art was such, that what seemed magnanimity was often, if not always, only prudence. She had marvellous vigilance and penetration. To overreach her was impossible; and she was pitted against men whose life was one long training to deceive. She did not scruple to meet guile with guile; and to this day, in some transactions of her life, none can even guess how far she was sincere. She was bold, but not rash; she could strike home when it was safe; and smile, with a sheathed sword, when it was needful. She was a sovereign thoroughly determined to maintain her throne and uphold the honour of her country;

and she well knew how to appeal to the hearts of those whom she ruled. At the same time she zealously upheld the principles of absolute and arbitrary rule established by her father. Her foreign policy, if wanting in honesty and good faith, was very successful. It was marked by a desire to maintain peace; because she wished her people to have time to collect and consolidate their strength for the struggle that was sure to come; and when it came, her wise abstention from useless enterprises had made the nation equal to the crisis. The weakness and the vices that deformed her, apart from her love of absolute power and her political double-dealing, came from her mother. It is strange to be forced to record that a woman, endowed with many qualities of greatness, was glad to hear herself called beautiful at seventy; was full of jealous envy of the charms of others; monstrously gay and extravagant in dress; given to flirting with the fops who danced attendance round her. But even here the greatness of her character preserved her from injuring England. She did not mingle business with folly, or let good-looking triflers advise her in affairs of state. From Leicester and from Essex she would turn to Walsingham and Burleigh, when cares of government required sober counsel.

Such was the sovereign that, in 1558, entered London amidst the shouts of joyful crowds and the clang of pealing bells. The prisoner of the Tower, the suspected recluse of Woodstock and of Hatfield, was Queen of England. She had already chosen Sir Nicholas Bacon as lord keeper or chancellor, and Sir William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, as secretary of state; and for forty years the latter's wisdom was given to the service of his sovereign. By inherited taste and early training Elizabeth was strongly opposed to the Roman Catholic party. The Protestant exiles returned, and prisoners were set free. A proclamation ordered the chief part of the service to be used in English, and forbade the elevation of the Host during Mass in her presence.

The queen was crowned at Westminster in January, 1559. The parliament, after declaring her title to the throne to be

Restoration  
of the  
Reformed  
faith.

valid, and herself to be of lawful birth, again passed the religious laws repealed under Mary. A new *Act of Supremacy* obliged all clergymen who had livings, and all laymen who held office under the crown, to take an oath denying the Pope's authority in England. The assertion of the papal authority was made a punishable offence. The queen was empowered to appoint commissioners for the repressing of religious errors, heresies, and schisms. This body became the notorious *Court of High Commission*. Obedience to the Acts was secured by the heavy penalties attached to felony and treason. An *Act of Uniformity* of the same session compelled the use of the *Prayer-Book* of 1552. All the bishops save one refused to take the oath of supremacy, and lost their offices. Bonner sought refuge in the Marshalsea from the hatred and vengeance of the mob. Matthew Parker was made Archbishop of Canterbury; and the famous Jewel, author of the *Apology*, or defence of the Reformed doctrines, now became a bishop.

The queen soon afterwards declared to parliament her purpose of never marrying, and declined an offer of marriage from Philip of Spain. From the words used in her reply to parliament has come her title of *The Maiden Queen*. The establishment of Protestantism and of the Church of England in its present form was completed in 1563 by the adoption of the Thirty-nine Articles. With trifling alterations and omissions, these are the same as the Forty-two Articles of 1551.

During the early years of peace, the prudent government of Elizabeth did not neglect due preparation for the day of battle and measures for the general welfare of the realm. The navy was increased; munitions of war were stored in arsenals along the coast; and weak points were fortified. The rapid growth of trade led to an increase in the mercantile marine. The making of brass cannon and of powder was introduced. The silver coinage, which had grown much debased, was now reissued in the pure form in which value corresponds to name.

There still came forward many suitors for the queen's hand. Amongst these were the Archduke Charles of

Austria, the King of Sweden, and the Scottish Earl of Arran. If she had ever serious thoughts of marrying at all, which may be doubted, it was to Robert Dudley, fourth son of the late Duke of Northumberland, that inclination led her. He was made Earl of Leicester in 1563, but his ambition and his assiduous flatteries never raised him higher. ✓

Elizabeth's  
suitors.

Soon after Elizabeth's accession the long quarrel between her and Mary Queen of Scots began. Mary's husband, the Dauphin of France, had become, by the death of his father, Francis II., King of France. He assumed the title of *King of England*, claiming the English crown for his wife Mary. The claim was based on the assumption that Elizabeth was illegitimate, and it was this assumption that exasperated her, and provoked her to her lifelong enmity to Mary. She replied by an attack upon her rival's power in Scotland. The Reformation was being fought there by the Protestant party, under the leadership of the nobles who had taken to themselves the title of the *Lords of the Congregation*. They called the Roman Catholic Church the Congregation of Satan.

Claim of  
Mary Queen  
of Scots to  
the throne.

The Protestant champion in Scotland was John Knox, who had been driven from England by the Catholic Queen Mary, and who began in Scotland a crusade against the Catholic Church. His followers destroyed the altars, images, and outward symbols of the Roman Catholic faith. The quarrel ended in civil war. In January, 1560, an English fleet and army went to the Firth of Forth to aid the Protestant lords in the siege of Leith, which was defended by French troops for the regent, Mary of Guise. After a six months' contest, the French surrendered, and Presbyterianism was established in Scotland.

Establish-  
ment of Pres-  
byterianism  
in Scotland.

In 1560 Mary of Scotland lost her husband, and next year she returned to Scotland. As a Roman Catholic she was soon embroiled with Knox, who, to her face, in her own chapel at Holyrood Palace, freely criticised both her and her religion. Elizabeth and Mary were now outwardly at peace, and a great matter

Mary's mar-  
riage with  
Darnley.

of debate between them was the subject of Mary's marriage to a second husband. Elizabeth dreaded a Scottish alliance with France or Spain, and proposed for Mary's second husband her own favourite, the Earl of Leicester. Mary, however, chose Lord Darnley, her own cousin, son of the Earl of Lennox, and married him in 1565. He was, after Mary, next heir to the English crown through his descent from Margaret, Henry VIII.'s sister, by her second husband, the Earl of Angus. This marriage estranged Mary from the Protestants of Scotland, who disliked the faith of Darnley. It annoyed Elizabeth. It gave Mary for a husband a worthless profligate, whose conduct led her to disgrace and ruin.

An Italian musician of Mary's court, named David Rizzio, became her secretary, and enjoyed her confidence. Darnley, inflamed with jealousy, plotted his death; and on March 9, 1566, the deed was done. Rizzio, dragged from the table where he sat at supper with the queen, was stabbed to death by Darnley and his friends. Three months afterwards Mary became the mother of a son, James Stuart, afterwards King of Scotland and of England.

Murder of  
Rizzio.

Rizzio's murder was speedily avenged. In the following February, a lonely house in Edinburgh, called *Kirk-a-Field*, where Darnley and a page were sleeping, was blown up. The bodies of the king and his page were found lying forty yards off in a neighbouring field. The men who placed the powder there were servants of the Earl of Bothwell, whom the Queen married shortly afterwards. Whether Mary was or was not privy to the murder of Darnley is a question which has given rise to a very keen controversy between her friends and her accusers. The Protestant lords took up arms against the queen and Bothwell, and on June 15, 1567, Mary was forced to surrender at Carberry Hill, near Edinburgh. Bothwell fled abroad, and died in prison in Norway, mad with despair and misery.

In July of the same year, Mary, then a prisoner in the castle of Loch Leven, was forced to abdicate, and her infant son, now but a year old, was proclaimed king. The

Death of  
Darnley.

Protestant leader, James Stuart, Earl of Murray, Mary's half brother, became regent. There was a strong party, chiefly Catholics, in favour of the queen, and in the following May she escaped from prison by the help of George Douglas, son of the owner of the castle. On May 13 a decisive battle at *Langside*, near Glasgow, between Mary's forces and the Regent Murray's, ended in the ex-queen's total defeat.

Abdication  
of Mary.

She fled to England. Arrived at Carlisle, she wrote a letter throwing herself on the protection of Elizabeth. In all the previous troubles Elizabeth had shown much sympathy for her suffering sister-monarch. Her answer now was that Mary must prepare to take her trial for Darnley's murder, and Murray was desired to produce his proofs. A body of commissioners, presided over by the Duke of Norfolk, was appointed to investigate the case. Murray produced documents purporting to be letters from Bothwell to Mary, and from her to Bothwell. If these were genuine, it was clear that she was privy to Darnley's murder. Mary, as a sovereign, denied the right of the English Queen to put her upon her trial, and demanded permission to return to Scotland or to go to France. Her demand was refused.

Mary's flight  
to England.

She was then removed from Bolton in Yorkshire to Tutbury in Staffordshire. She refused to purchase forgiveness by a voluntary resignation of the crown of Scotland. The Duke of Norfolk, son of the Earl of Surrey beheaded by Henry VIII., thought of marrying her. His plan was betrayed to Elizabeth. His scheme, though he was himself a Protestant, had been favoured by English Roman Catholics, among whom were the Earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland; and the committal of Norfolk to the Tower was followed by the flight of the two earls to Scotland. The confederates had aimed at the release of Mary, and she was now more strictly guarded. Norfolk was soon afterwards released on promising to give up all thoughts of Mary.

Imprison-  
ment of  
Mary.

In January, 1570, Scotland was thrown into disorder by the assassination of the Regent Murray by a private enemy,

a gentleman named Hamilton. Elizabeth refused to restore Mary to the throne of Scotland, deeming it needful to keep her hold on one whom the Roman Catholics thought the rightful sovereign of England.

Murder of  
Murray.

During the early years of Elizabeth's reign a new religious party had been rising into prominence. These were the *Puritans*, a name first given them in mockery of their aim to set up a purer form of worship than that of the Established Church. They were opposed to the use of the Liturgy as a fixed form of service, to the wearing of the surplice, the presence of pictures and stained windows in the churches, and other usages which were then practised. The queen's aversion to the Puritans was grounded partly on her attachment to the church, and partly on her dislike of views they held regarding the power of the crown. The Puritans, from their non-compliance with the Act of Uniformity, acquired the name of *Nonconformists*. After they as a body separated themselves from the Established Church, they were called *Dissenters*. Their love of civil and religious freedom made them afterwards defenders of the nation's liberties against the tyranny of Stuart sovereigns. Archbishop Parker shielded them so far as he was able from the penalties incurred under the Act of Uniformity. Not yet was the grand principle of toleration in religion recognized in England or indeed anywhere.

The cause of Mary was secretly supported by both France and Spain. In France a civil war between the Protestants, or Huguenots, and the Roman Catholics, had ended in a temporary peace. The French king feigned a desire for friendship with Elizabeth, and Elizabeth accepted his professions. The Pope,

Massacre of  
St. Bar-  
tholomew's  
Day.

Pius V., issued in 1570 his *Bull of Excommunication*, calling on the English queen's subjects to depose her. Her parliament next year passed new laws, with penalties of treason, against the Roman Catholics. The year after, the French government threw off the mask of moderation, and on St. Bartholomew's Day the Protestant leader, Admiral Coligny, hundreds of noblemen and gentlemen, and thousands of lower

rank, were cruelly murdered. In other towns through the country the Paris doings were imitated.

Philip II. of Spain had been engaged for some years in putting down the Protestant heresy in the Netherlands by brute force. The people of that hive of wealth and industry were driven to revolt. Philip employed the Duke of Alva as his instrument of vengeance; and torture, confiscation, and the scaffold soon drove thousands of those who could escape them, as exiles into England, where they were warmly welcomed. The end of a long struggle, in which William the Silent, Prince of Orange, led the patriots, was the independence of the seven northern provinces. These were formed into the Protestant country now called *Holland*.

Revolt of the  
Netherlands.

In 1572 the Duke of Norfolk was induced by Alva to renew his scheme for a marriage with Mary Queen of Scots and to join in a conspiracy for a Spanish invasion. Condemned by a jury of peers for treason, Norfolk was executed in June of the same year. Thus drew slowly on the day of England's open conflict with Spain.

Execution  
of Norfolk.

Elizabeth had entered on the second period of her eventful reign. The able and astute Sir Francis Walsingham was secretary of state; but Lord Burleigh was still the chief adviser. For several years English hostility to Spain took the form of an irregular warfare, which we should now call piracy, against the Spanish trade with the New World. Hatred of Spain, and love of plunder, of adventure, and of discovery, sent forth the mariners of Devon to seek danger and to win renown. Many of the gentry and the courtiers had a pecuniary interest in these transactions; which led to many geographical discoveries, and prepared the hardy sailors for the great contest with Spain.

Irregular  
warfare  
against  
Spain.

Martin Frobisher, seeking a north-west passage to India, made his way far into the icy recesses of the polar seas. Francis Drake sailed from Plymouth, passed into the Pacific by the Straits of Magellan, and took many Spanish prizes laden with the silver of

Geographical  
discoveries.

Peru. He was the first Englishman to sail round the world; and he returned to England by way of the East Indies and the Cape of Good Hope in 1580. He was honoured by the queen with knighthood and her presence at a banquet on board his ship in the Thames. Sir John Hawkins sailed along the Guinea Coast, and began the slave-trade, the source of so much future misery and wrong. By means of it the Spaniards had begun to supply in their West Indian possessions the place of the native Indians exterminated by their cruelty. Sir Walter Raleigh founded on the east coast of North America a settlement called, in honour of his maiden sovereign, *Virginia*. Philip of Spain retaliated upon Elizabeth and her people by stealthy aid to the conspiracies got up in favour of the captive Mary.

Roman Catholic missionaries now came in considerable numbers to England, and made the most zealous seminaries. attempts to win people back to the old faith.

In 1580, in particular, a body of Jesuits was sent over by the Pope, Gregory XIII. under the leadership of two Englishmen named Campion and Parsons. Campion was taken, and executed as a traitor. There were constant rumours of plots against the queen's life, and for the invasion of England by the troops of France, of Scotland, and of Spain; and in the religious hatreds and the practices of the time may be found some excuse for the severities of the English government.

At last parliament made it treason to convert a Protestant to Catholicity; and an association of ardent Protestants was formed, under an Act of Parliament, for the defence of the queen's person and the exclusion from the throne of any one who might be benefited by attacks upon her. This was, of course, levelled at Mary. Another statute banished from the kingdom, within forty days, all Jesuits and Roman Catholic priests. Under these laws many priests and laymen, and even some women, suffered death. At the same time the penalties of imprisonment and forfeiture were strictly enforced against those Roman Catholics who refused to conform to the Protestant religion.

Philip was further provoked by English interference in the Netherlands. The Prince of Orange had been assassinated by a Roman Catholic fanatic, and the revolted provinces of Holland appealed to Elizabeth for aid, offering her again the sovereignty of their country, which she had already once declined. An English force, commanded by the Earl of Leicester went over too late to save Antwerp from capture by the Prince of Parma. In the following year (1586), in an unsuccessful attack of Leicester's upon Zutphen, in the east of Holland, the English army and the whole country had to mourn the death of the brave, accomplished, and learned Sir Philip Sidney. At thirty-two he died, a most illustrious embodiment of Christian chivalry and courtly grace. This expedition to the Netherlands is a decided blot on the foreign administration of the great queen. It was a weak, ill-planned, and ill-supported enterprise, entrusted to an incompetent leader.

The Spanish possessions in the West Indies had been assailed and plundered by Sir Francis Drake. Nearer and nearer came the day of open conflict between Spain and England. A new Pope, Sixtus V., urged Philip, as the champion of the Roman Catholic cause, to execute the bull of Pius V. and dethrone the English heretic. Philip's ambition aimed at the crown of England for himself, as his reward for a successful attack upon the hated land of Protestants and pirates, who rejected the true faith and robbed the Spanish treasure-ships. The shipyards and the arsenals of Spain and of Portugal (which now had Philip for a master) rang with the din of preparation. But great events in England were to come before the blow of Philip fell upon her.

In 1586 a Derbyshire gentleman named Anthony Babington plotted to murder the queen and her chief ministers. The prime movers of this plot, known as *Babington's conspiracy*, were a priest, Father John Ballard, and an adventurer named John Savage, who came over to England to make arrangements for Elizabeth's assassination and Mary's release and accession to the English throne. Mendoza, the Spanish ambassador at Paris, was in

Expedition  
to the  
Netherlands.

Spanish pre-  
parations  
for war with  
England.

Babington's  
conspiracy.

the secret of the plans of the conspirators, which included an insurrection in England and an invasion by Spain. Walsingham's spies were at work, and a priest named Gifford turned traitor and placed in Walsingham's hands the letters that passed between the plotters and Mary. Babington and thirteen others were seized and executed.

Mary was tried by a special commission at Fotheringay Castle in Northamptonshire. Copies of letters referring to the assassination of Elizabeth, and purporting to have been written by her, were produced. Upon these, and the confession of Babington and of Mary's two secretaries (who were not, however, confronted with her at the trial), the Scottish Queen was convicted. She scarcely denied that, in the hope of obtaining her own liberty, she had been party to the conspiracy for the invasion of England. Sentence of death was pronounced upon her by the royal commissioners. The French government warmly protested; but James VI. of Scotland made only a comparatively feeble remonstrance in his mother's favour. Elizabeth pretended the utmost reluctance to carry out the sentence.

A warrant for the execution was issued, and the next day the queen wanted it delayed; but her secretary Davison, influenced by Burleigh and the council, had already got the Great Seal of England affixed by the chancellor, and the warrant was on its way to Fotheringay. There, in the castle-hall, on the morning of February 8, 1587, Mary Stuart was executed. She was forty-five years old, and had been nineteen years a captive.

When news of Mary's death arrived, Elizabeth strove to save herself from odium by declaring that she had never meant the warrant to be executed. She imprisoned Davison and fined him in the enormous sum of £10,000. The King of Spain pressed on his preparations for invasion. He claimed the English crown, which had been left to him by Mary in her will as a sign of her dissatisfaction with the conduct of her son. Elizabeth was not idle. In the spring of 1587 Drake went to Spain with a fleet, and, as he called it, "singd the King of Spain's

beard." He burned more than 100 ships in Cadiz harbour, and destroyed there and at Corunna vast quantities of stores. The Spanish expedition was thus delayed for a year.

England and Spain were now face to face. A crisis in the history of Europe and of the world had come. The infantry of Spain was the most highly trained in the world. The courage of Spanish soldiers had been proved on many a hard-fought field. The Prince of Parma, commanding the Spanish armies, was the ablest general of the age. England had only an ill-trained, ill-armed militia, and no general who could dream of coping with Parma. If Spain could land her troops, it was to be feared that stubborn courage, unbacked by skill, would only make more dreadful the slaughter of the islanders who fought for the new faith and for the freedom of their land. The Catholics of England, nobly loyal, when called on to repel a foreign foe, came forward to fight for their queen and country.

It was upon the sea that beats upon her shores that England could alone hope to resist the power of Spain. The Spanish fleet, whose official title in Spain was simply "The Grand Fleet," was ready in the harbours of Spain and Portugal by the month of May, 1588. It was composed partly of huge sailing-vessels called *galleons*, armed with high towers at stem and stern, partly of long galleys rowed by many oars. On board of the galleons were 20,000 soldiers, including many Roman Catholic refugees of Scotland, Ireland, and England. In all, 130 vessels, armed with 2600 guns, were under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia. The plan was for the *Armada* to sweep the English fleet from the Channel and the Straits of Dover, and for the Prince of Parma to cross over from the Netherlands with his army of 40,000 veterans.

The English navy of 34 ships carried over 800 guns and near 7000 seamen, and was aided by over 150 volunteer-vessels, fitted out by merchants, citizens, and nobles, and placed at the disposal of the queen. Only 13 of the English ships exceeded 400 tons

Impending  
struggle be-  
tween England  
and Spain.

The  
"Armada."

The English  
navy.

in burthen, and the largest, of 1100, was far smaller than a Spanish galleon. The odds against England looked serious; but nearly 16,000 brave and skilful sailors, manning light and manageable vessels, gave her fleet a great advantage over the Spanish ships, crowded with troops, and undermanned in seamen. Lord Howard of Effingham was in supreme command, as lord high-admiral, of the English force, and he was supported by Hawkins, Drake, Raleigh, and Frobisher.

The winds and seas were, from the first, against the Spaniards. Leaving Lisbon in May, the Armada was scattered by a storm, and when it had been re-assembled and refitted, left Corunna on July 13,

Attack on  
the Armada.

1588. Six days afterwards, the armament was seen making up Channel with a favouring wind, stretched in a crescent 8 miles in width, with outward curve in front and the horns of the crescent thrown back. On July 20 the English fleet moved out of Plymouth, and by the morning of the 21st superior seamanship had put them to windward of the enemy, and they advanced, retired, sailed round and round, and poured in shot at will upon the lumbering vessels of the foe. Day after day the harassing attacks went on, the Spaniards losing heart as well as ships, the English gaining in hope and courage. On the 23rd there was fighting all day off Portland; on the 25th, off the Isle of Wight, the Spaniards losing ship after ship; on the 27th the Spaniards, sorely discouraged, anchored off Calais, blockaded by the English, whose sole trouble was that powder had run short. On the 29th the last great blow was dealt. Eight fire-ships, filled with combustibles, were set alight and sent drifting down amongst the weary foe off Calais. Terror and confusion set in; cables were cut, and the "Invincible" Armada fled through the Dover Straits, and past the Thames, on their only way of possible safety, right round Great Britain and Ireland. The English ships in close pursuit took, sank, and drove the enemy ashore, and the chase lasted to the coast of Scotland. Storms came to complete the Spanish ruin. On the rocky shores of Orkney, Norway, the Hebrides, the Mull of Cantyre, Con-

nacht, and Ulster, more than fifty ships were cast away, and in October the Duke of Medina Sidonia re-entered Corunna with a remnant of fifty-two half-wrecked vessels.

England was saved, and on Sunday, November 24, the thanks of queen and country went up from old St. Paul's to heaven, and from each church throughout the land, for the great deliverance. Only one English ship had been the price paid for the enemy's complete discomfiture. The defeat of the Armada marked the rise of England as a great maritime Power. The main cause of victory was, beyond doubt, the superiority of British seamanship, and not the "heaven-sent storm" which only destroyed, during flight, much of the armament of foes who had already sustained a crushing disaster. A main result of England's success was that she stepped into the arena to face Spain, who had the start by a whole century, as a competitor for supremacy in commerce with the New World. England now assumed before mankind a new place and a new character, as an Oceanic Power, when the new race of Englishmen—mariners, such as Drake and Hawkins, well styled the "the hero-buccaneers," defied with success the invader who proudly posed as the master of the New World, the inheritor of the discoveries of Columbus. Two years more saw the Spaniards driven out of the Dutch United Provinces, and in the year following the Armada Henry IV., at first a Protestant himself, and always a supporter of religious toleration, succeeded to the throne of France. The grand conspiracy against England was beaten at all points. The year after, the English attacked Spain in her own harbours, and a squadron, under Drake, with troops under the queen's new favourite, the Earl of Essex, burned in the Groyne Bay, near Corunna, ships destined for a new Armada. The same force also captured and burned Vigo. English troops also helped Henry IV. of France in his contest against the Roman Catholic League. In 1596 new threats and preparations for invasion by Philip II. led to a new attack on Spain. An expedition under Lord Effingham as admiral, and Lord Essex in command of troops, sailed for Cadiz, stormed the town, and captured Spanish vessels.

Further  
attacks on  
Spain.

From time to time, too, attacks were made on the Spanish possessions in America, and much booty was secured by English ships.

In 1598 England's great enemy, Philip II. of Spain, died, and in the same year Elizabeth's great counsellor, Lord Burleigh, was succeeded on his death by his second son, Sir Robert Cecil. The able but imprudent Earl of Essex was high in the queen's favour, in spite of many quarrels with her, and of a bitter rivalry between him and Cecil. The great queen's closing years were troubled by affairs in Ireland, and by the conduct of Lord Essex. As in England, so in Ireland, the Protestant faith had, under Elizabeth, become the established religion of the country. but the great majority of the people, as at present, were firm adherents of the Roman Catholic Church. Ireland had never really been subdued, and constant feuds were carried on between the early English settlers and the native Celts, and then between the Anglo-Irish descendants of the early settlers and newcomers from England. The country was a centre of disaffection. Encouraged by Philip II., a formidable rebellion broke out, headed by Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone. Spain supplied arms and ammunition; and for five years Tyrone maintained himself, and even gained a signal victory over an English army. In 1599 Essex went over as lord-lieutenant with a large force, but did nothing, and even entered into negotiations with the Irish chieftains for a peace. Essex, against orders, returned to England to explain matters, and was received with great displeasure by Elizabeth. His successor, Lord Mountjoy, routed Tyrone in 1602, and for the time Ireland was subjugated.

The folly of Lord Essex provoked Elizabeth to treat him with severity. In 1601 he plunged into a mad insurrection in the city of London, was condemned for treason by a jury of peers, and beheaded in the Tower. He was but thirty-four years old when he thus provoked his fate. It is believed that the affection of Elizabeth would have saved him at the last moment, if a ring she had bestowed upon him, to be sent to her in any

Execution  
of Essex.

time of trouble, had reached her hands. The treachery of the Countess of Nottingham withheld it, when it was entrusted to her for conveyance to the queen, and the warrant for execution was signed in the belief that Essex was too proud to seek for pardon.

The queen learned the truth when the countess lay dying two years afterwards, and on the 24th of March the same year Elizabeth died, worn out in body, and in despondency and gloom of soul. The mental suffering of her last days has been ascribed to grief for Essex. It was more probably connected with the natural decay of energies exhausted by the cares of her long and strenuous reign.

Death of  
Queen  
Elizabeth.

Elizabeth's last parliament is to be noted for the passing, in 1601, of the first "Poor Law," providing for the maintenance of paupers through the agency of parish overseers.

The poor  
law.

In the same year a strong stand was made by parliament against the abuse of *monopolies*, or patents granted by the crown for the exclusive sale of various articles of trade. In this way favourites, to whom monopolies were granted, were enriched, and the people suffered from the high prices charged by the privileged dealers for such necessary things as salt, oil, vinegar, lead, paper, sea-borne coals, iron, leather, and glass. The queen met the remonstrances of parliament with thanks for drawing her attention to the matters of complaint, and with a promise for the abolition of the same.

Monopolies.

The death of Queen Elizabeth brought to an end the line of Tudor sovereigns, and with them ended the tame submission of the English people to the partial despotism which the Tudors had established. The constitutional rights of parliament existed, but had been suffered to fall into a partial disuse.

Subserviency  
of parliament  
under the  
Tudors.

Elizabeth treated parliament on some occasions in a haughty and even tyrannical fashion. In 1593 members who had displeased her were imprisoned, and the House of Commons submitted to take orders from the crown in matters of legislation. The truth is that the Commons, under a

sovereign so popular and able, could not rely on being supported in resistance by the public. There was no free press, no public knowledge of debates. There were members of the House of Commons who well knew and manfully asserted their privileges, but the patriotic party in the House itself was swamped in a measure by the supporters of the crown, who sat as members for new boroughs created under Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. In these the electors were few in number, and were forced to choose men nominated by the government. The sovereign still exercised the power of rejecting bills which had passed both Houses, and the Houses in their turn refused sometimes to make laws recommended by the crown.

As to the power of taxation, Henry VII. and Henry VIII. had both endeavoured to raise money illegally by the system of forced loans or *benevolences*, which Edward IV. had introduced, and which Richard III. had caused to be condemned by Act of Parliament. Elizabeth also raised loans in this way, but, with her usual tact and wisdom, silenced objection by the punctual repayment of the money. It is in the executive that we see most clearly the tyranny prevailing under the Tudor sovereigns. The rights declared by Magna Charta were often violated. Men were imprisoned without legal warrant, and condemned without a trial by their peers. The Court of Star Chamber tried men for various offences, used torture to enforce confession, and punished by imprisonment, by monstrous fines, by whipping, cutting off the ears, and placing in the pillory. In trials for political offences, justice was so violated that those condemned to death by servile and corrupt judges may be described as victims of a system of judicial murder.

Under Elizabeth the Court of High Commission persecuted those who dared to differ from the established faith, and Puritans, as well as Roman Catholics, suffered fines and imprisonment for religion. The Star Chamber and the High Commission Court were to go further yet under the Stuarts before they were destroyed by the indignation of a people who would fight

rather than submit to tyranny. Under the Tudors the nation had secured the blessings of an undisputed succession after so many domestic conflicts. The next battle in the long struggle for the nation's liberties was that in which the sovereigns of England were to learn, by death and dethronement, the wide extent of a people's rights and the limits of the prerogative of the crown.

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## CHAPTER IV

### MATERIAL AND MENTAL STATE AND PROGRESS OF ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS

THE Tudor age in England was distinguished by a great advance in learning. The use of the English Bible had some influence in the work of education. The translation of the Scriptures promoted the study of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin; and it was now that the great classical writers of ancient Greece and Rome began to have a foremost place in the schools. The great Dutch scholar, Erasmus, professor of Greek at Oxford under Henry VIII., took a leading part in the advance of classical learning. Henry VIII., Edward VI., Jane Grey, Elizabeth, and Mary I. were all scholars. Wolsey, Sir Thomas More, and Latimer, the great physician Linacre, and Dean Colet, founder of St. Paul's School, were among the earliest and most eminent Greek scholars of England. A taste for letters arose and grew amongst the gentry and the nobles, when the decay of feudalism made room for something better than the chase, the tournament, and the battle-field.

Part of the confiscated wealth of the religious houses was employed in founding or extending public schools. Under the Tudors, Shrewsbury, Birmingham, Rugby, Westminster, Bury St. Edmund's, and many other places had their grammar-schools established. The great foundation of the Bluecoat School, or Christ's Hospital, in London, is due to Edward VI. The Bodleian

Advance of  
classical  
learning.

Foundation  
of public  
schools.

Library at Oxford had its rise under Elizabeth. Trinity College, Cambridge, was founded and richly endowed by Henry VIII.; and Christ Church College, Oxford, by Cardinal Wolsey, who also established in that university the first professorship of Greek.

The hospitals of Saint Bartholomew and Saint Thomas, in London, were established by Edward VI. for the care of the sick poor, just at the time when the art of medicine in England began to assume a position of real dignity and usefulness.

Foundation  
of hospitals.

England began to take a foremost place in navigation and in commerce. Ships went to and fro between the ports of England and the shores of America and India. In 1600 a charter granted to a company by Elizabeth gave the first impulse to the trade with the East Indies. A trade with the land then called Muscovy, now known as Russia, began when English ships found their way round Norway to Archangel. Under Elizabeth the exports to the Continent became the freight of English instead of foreign vessels; and the ships built for trading helped to give England a high position as a naval power. The defeat of the Armada was a foretaste of the victories of the Nile and Trafalgar.

Increase of  
English com-  
merce.

Sir Thomas  
Gresham.

The great friend of the merchants was Elizabeth. Sir Thomas Gresham, of the city of London, was honoured by her friendship, and she went in state to open the building called the *Royal Exchange* which he erected for the convenience of traders.

The intercourse with foreign lands led to the introduction of many products of the earth which now grow in our gardens, fields, and orchards, and afford wholesome and agreeable food. The potato was introduced from America. Currants and cherries, plums, grapes, and gooseberries, apricots, and the better kinds of apples, became the delicious produce of our soil. Carrots and other roots gave a new relish to our beef and mutton. Hop-gardens in Kent and Surrey began to bloom in beauty, and made England independent of the Netherlands for the bitter ale, which, in Tudor times, held the place

Introduction  
of new fruits  
and vege-  
tables.

of tea and coffee at the morning meal. Tobacco was introduced from the West Indies by Sir Walter Raleigh.

Manufactures grew in importance through improvements in silk-weaving and in dressing woollen cloth—improvements due to foreign Protestants who fled hither from persecution in France and in the Netherlands. In giving shelter to foreign refugees, England got much good herself from those to whom her shores offered freedom and safety. In Tudor times, too, the frame for making stockings was invented, and needles and paper were first made in England. The particular manufactures of Sheffield, Manchester, and Birmingham now had their rise.

Rise of our  
manufacturing  
centres.

The rich began to ride in coaches, and to keep time by watches introduced from Germany. Ladies began to use fans and muffs, and to improve on nature by wearing false hair. Queen Catharine Howard first used pins from France, and *pin-money* provided for the wives what were then a costly novelty. Extravagance in dress reached a great height under Elizabeth. The large hooped petticoat, and the huge ruff of stiff-starched, plaited linen are to be seen in all the portraits of that age. The ruff was worn on wrists and neck by ladies and by gentlemen alike, and on the neck at least extended to a yard in width. The favourite jewel of Elizabeth was the pearl, worn in the ears and bordering the dress. The fashions of the time can best be understood by prints or by the pictures of Holbein. The dress of men and women was more gay and various when costume marked the calling and the station of the wearer. The well-to-do shone in apparel bright with ornament and colour, and silk lace, velvet, gold and silver fringe and tissue decked the garb of men as well as women.

Costume of  
the period.

Progress in taste and comfort may be noted in the habitations of the people. The rich and noble built in brick and stone, and light came to their dwellings through glass windows. Large oaken beams were much used in the mansions and the manor-houses of Elizabeth's age. The interiors of the better houses showed

Dwellings of  
the rich  
and poor.

wide staircases with banisters of massive oak, leading to rooms with high carved oaken mantel-pieces, high panelled wainscots, ceilings and roofs of oak, and windows with devices in stained glass. Most of the forests that once filled the land had been used up for fuel in the houses and in the smelting-works. Where timber was still found in plenty it was employed for building the dwellings of the lower class; where it was scarce, they lived in hovels made of laths and clay. The liking of the poorer sort for smoky dwellings, which had been thought warmer and more healthy than houses where the smoke had way provided to escape, gave place to the established use of chimneys. The floors in common houses were still strewn with rushes seldom changed. The better houses had well-polished floors of oak, or frequent fresh supplies of rushes. Carpets were the rare luxury of the greatest mansions. The reign of Elizabeth saw much improvement in domestic comfort. The bedding had more warmth and softness in the coverings, mattresses, and pillows, as advance in manufactures supplied cheaper and better sheets and blankets; and ingenuity found better means to rest the weary head and limbs than bags of chaff and pallets stuffed with straw. Dishes and spoons of wood were changed for pewter and for silver.

The chief outdoor amusement of the great was the hunting of the deer with horse and hound. The catching of winged game by well-trained hawks or falcons was a favourite sport. Kindness to animals was an unknown virtue in those times, and the torture known as bull-baiting and bear-baiting was witnessed by the highest in the land, both men and women. The country-folks and lower class of those days showed the English love of sport and outdoor exercises in foot-races and archery. The modern cricket and croquet were represented then by games of ball called club-ball and pall-mall. This last game, much resembling croquet, gave afterwards the name to a well-known street at the West end of London, and to a wide road near it in Saint James's Park. At Christmas-time mummers and masquers went about in garbs

Outdoor  
amuse-  
ments.

grotesque and gay; May-day saw dancing round the flower-clad maypole on the village green.

Indoors the chief games were backgammon, dice, chess, and cards. Dancing and music were much indulged in. The chief instruments were a kind of guitar and a rude early form of the pianoforte called the *virginals*.

Indoor  
amuse-  
ments.

The lower classes lived in rude plenty, eating bread of barley and of rye, and drinking ale; the rich had wheaten bread and sack (or sherry) and other foreign wines. The manners of the age were rough. Husbands beat their wives and fathers whipped their grown-up daughters; the flogging of apprentices by masters and of scholars by their teachers was what we should now call brutal. The language used by sovereigns, courtiers, and even ladies then, would shock us now by its profanity and coarseness. Elizabeth was known to swear at bishops and to box courtiers' ears, and we may well afford to lose some gaiety and freedom in exchange for not a little gain in decency and refinement.

Manners of  
the period.

Life in the Tudor age was less hurried, but more merry, riotous, and jovial than now. When Queen Elizabeth ruled England, things and people, dress and doings, were more picturesque than in this busy, sober, money-making age. Where the eye fell on houses of a decent kind, it then saw gable ends, thatched roofs, the twisted stalks of clustering chimneys, spacious porches, and windows divided by shafts and cross-bars into parallelograms of tiny diamond panes. The shops were open to the street like booths, and every trade had its pictured sign hung out. Long wooden galleries looked down on inn-yards with the rooms on the inner side, as may be seen now in the *rows* at Chester.

Life of the  
period.

Let us pass on to the superstitions of the time, soon to be dispelled by the dawn of science. All but the highest minds, under the Tudors, believed in alchemy, astrology, and witchcraft. Alchemy was an art practised by men who were half-rogues and half-enthusiasts, with a smattering of chemical science and a large stock of

Alchemy.

faith. It was believed to be possible to find the composition of a liquid called the *elixir of life*, which would give health, strength, and comeliness for ever to the drinker of it. These alchemists tried also to discover how to make a substance called the *philosopher's stone*, the touch of which would change lead into gold, and so give its owner riches without end. To these pursuits, time, means, and even life were sacrificed, but not uselessly; for from alchemy arose the science of chemistry.

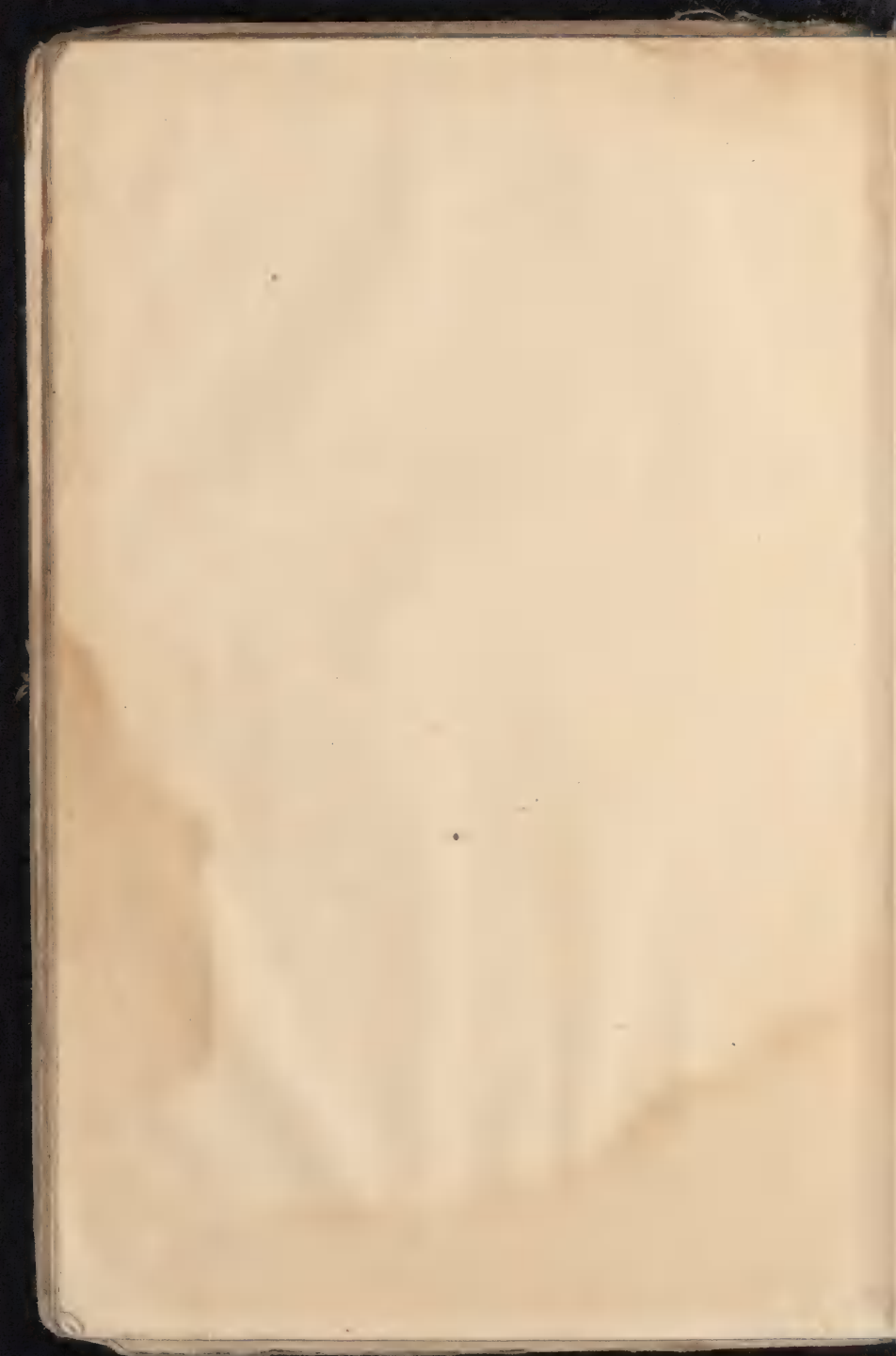
Astrology, an art practised of old by the Chaldean sooth-sayers or *magi*, pretended to foretell the destinies of a man by

**Astrology.** calculations founded on the movements and position of the planets when he was born. This delusion has enriched the language with the words used to describe the different temperaments or dispositions of particular persons. When we say *jovial* we use the jargon of the art which talked of men as born under the planet Jupiter; so with *saturnine* and *mercurial*; and when we call an event *disastrous* and a man *ill-starred* we show how words survive the exploded errors whence they had their birth.

Real mischief and much cruelty were caused by the degrading and wide-spread belief in witchcraft. It was held that certain old, half-witted, wrinkled women, by  
**Witch.raft.** communion with Satan, could and did cause mischief to their neighbours and to those whom they were paid to place under malignant influence. Untimely deaths of human beings and of cattle, strange accidents, and rare phenomena were ascribed to these unhappy *witches*, who were seized and put to death by hundreds. The favourite popular method of dealing with the supposed witch, who was often the most harmless woman of the countryside, was to throw her into a pond to test her for innocence or guilt. If she were drowned, she was no witch—Satan had not assisted her to float; if she floated, she was a witch, and as such, died the death. Suspicion thus ended in murder, and the people went home satisfied, until the next outbreak of disease, caused by their own ignorance of sanitary laws, or the next accident of clumsiness or carelessness, made them look round for a new victim.

Amidst all this we have the glory of the Tudor age, its marvellous literature. Henry VIII.'s reign had Sir Thomas More in prose, Sir Thomas Wyatt and the Earl of Surrey as poets. Greater than the sagacious statesmen, stout soldiers, and bold and skilful seamen who, with brain and arm, guarded the throne of Elizabeth, were the writers, fresh in thought and vigorous in style, who brought undying fame to that age and to themselves. Here we can only name, without attempting to describe, Sidney, Lyly, Hooker, and Raleigh for their prose, Spenser and the supreme and universal Shakespeare for immortal verse.

Illustrious  
men of  
the period.



## APPENDIX

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## SOVEREIGNS OF GREAT BRITAIN

NAME.	DATES.	CLAIM.	CAUSE OF DEATH.	PLACE OF DEATH.
TUDOR PERIOD.				
Henry VII	1485	Conquest *	Natural (Gout, &c.)	Richmond.
Henry VIII	1509	Son	Natural	Westminster.
Edward VI	1547	Son	Natural (Consumption)	Greenwich.
Mary I.	1553	Half-sister	Natural (Dropsy)	Westminster.
Elizabeth	1558	Half-sister	Natural (Grief)	Richmond.

## THE SOVEREIGNS OF GREAT BRITAIN IN RHYME

First William the Norman, then William his son,  
 Henry, Stephen, and Henry, then Richard and John;  
 Next Henry the third, Edwards one, two, and three,  
 And again after Richard three Henrys we see;  
 Two Edwards, third Richard (if rightly I guess),  
 Then Jamie the Scot, and Charles whom they slew,  
 And then followed Cromwell, another Charles too;  
 Next James called the second ascended the throne,  
 Then William and Mary together came on;  
 Next, Anne's, the four Georges', and William's reigns done,  
 Came good Queen Victoria, then seventh Edward her son.

\* Great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt.

# CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF PRINCIPAL EVENTS

## TUDOR PERIOD.

### Henry VII. (Richmond), 1485 to 1509.

- 1486. The rival houses of York and Lancaster joined by the marriage of Henry with Elizabeth of York. **The Star Chamber Court revived.**
- 1487. **Lambert Simnel** proclaimed as Edward VI. He and his supporters having landed in England were defeated at Stoke, near Newark.
- 1492. **Perkin Warbeck**, a second impostor, appeared, and a rebellion in his favour commenced. He was captured in 1497, and executed in 1499.
- 1492. America discovered by Columbus.
- 1496. **James IV. of Scotland** invaded England in favour of Warbeck.
- 1497. Insurrection in Cornwall against the taxes levied for a Scotch war.
- 1499. **Perkin Warbeck** and the **Earl of Warwick** executed for high treason.
- 1501. Arthur, eldest son of Henry, married to Catharine of Arragon.
- 1503. **James IV., King of Scotland**, married Margaret, daughter of the king.

### Henry VIII., 1509 to 1547.

- 1510. Execution of Dudley and Empson, the instruments of Henry VII.'s extortion.
- 1512. **War with France.** The French fleet destroyed near Brest by Sir Edward Howard.
- 1513. **Battle of Spurs.** French defeated. **James IV. of Scotland** invaded England; he was defeated and slain at **Flodden Field.**
- 1514. Peace concluded with France and Scotland.
- 1515. **Wolsey made Cardinal** by the Pope, and **Chancellor** by Henry. He was appointed **papal legate** 1518.
- 1520. The grand tournament called "**The Field of the Cloth of Gold**" held.
- 1521. Henry received the title of **Fidei Defensor** from the Pope.
- 1527-33. Trial for a divorce by Henry from Catharine of Arragon.
- 1529. **Fall of Wolsey**, who next year died in Leicester Abbey.
- 1532. **Commencement of the Reformation in England.**
- 1533. Cranmer appointed Archbishop of Canterbury.
- 1534. **The Pope's authority in England abolished. Act of Supremacy.**
- 1535. Cromwell appointed Vicar-general.
- 1536. Suppression of lesser monasteries. Riots in York and Lancashire called the **Pilgrimage of Grace**, caused by the change in religion. Incorporation of Wales.
- 1539. **Statute of Six Articles.** Remaining monasteries suppressed.

- 1540. Cromwell executed for high treason.
- 1541. **Henry declared King of Ireland.**
- 1542. War with Scotland. The Scots defeated at Solway Moss.
- 1543. War with France. Boulogne captured.
- 1544. Succession to the throne altered.
- 1546. Peace concluded with France and Scotland.
- 1547. The Earl of Surrey executed. His father the Duke of Norfolk lay in prison awaiting execution when Henry died.

#### Edward VI., 1547 to 1553.

- 1547. The Earl of Hertford, who was soon created Duke of Somerset, was appointed Protector. **The Scots defeated at Pinkie.** The "Statute of Six Articles" repealed.
- 1548. Mary Queen of Scots removed to France on the understanding that she should marry the Dauphin.
- 1549. **Act of Uniformity** passed. The rebellion of Ket, a tanner, quelled by the Earl of Oxford. Somerset deposed and sent to the Tower.
- 1550. Release of Somerset and re-admission to the council. **Peace concluded with France and Scotland.**
- 1552. Somerset executed on a charge of intending to imprison the Duke of Northumberland (Earl of Warwick).
- 1553. Edward by the desire of Northumberland appointed Lady Jane Grey (wife of Northumberland's son, Lord Guildford Dudley) heir to the throne.

#### Mary I., 1553 to 1558.

- 1553. Proclamation of Lady Jane Grey as queen. Mary, however, gathering round her a strong party, caused Northumberland to be executed, and Lady Jane Grey, her husband, and Cranmer, to be imprisoned on a charge of high treason.
- 1554. **Sir Thomas Wyatt executed** for plotting to place Elizabeth on the throne. Lady Jane Grey and her husband executed. Marriage of Mary to Philip, heir to the Spanish throne.
- 1555. England again brought under Rome. **The Marian persecution**, in which nearly 300 men, women, and children were burnt. Amongst these were Bishops Hooper, Latimer, and Ridley.
- 1557. **War with France** at the instigation of Philip. Battle of St. Quentin.
- 1558. Calais taken from the English by the Duke of Guise. Grief and death of Mary.

#### Elizabeth, 1558 to 1603.

- 1558. Sir William Cecil (afterwards Lord Burleigh) chosen by the queen as her chief adviser.
- 1559. The Protestant religion re-established. **Acts of Uniformity and Supremacy passed.**

1563. Ratification of the "**Thirty-nine Articles.**"
1565. Mary Queen of Scots married her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley.
1566. Darnley becoming jealous of David Rizzio, private secretary to Mary, helped to murder him.
1568. Mary Queen of Scots, on her party being defeated by the confederated lords, escaped to England, where she was imprisoned by Elizabeth.
1572. **Massacre of French Protestants** on St. Bartholomew's day. The Duke of Norfolk executed for high treason.
1583. Establishment of the **High Commission Court.**
1585. Elizabeth sent military aid to the Netherlands.
1586. Babington and other conspirators executed for plotting to assassinate Elizabeth and liberate Mary Queen of Scots.
1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
1588. **Defeat of the Spanish Armada.**
1594. Irish rebellion under O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, not quelled till 1602.
1596. Cadiz captured by the Earl of Essex and Lord Howard.
1600. The East Indian Company established.
1601. Execution of the Earl of Essex. First Poor Law passed.

## PRINCIPAL BATTLES

DATE.	NAME OF BATTLE.	BETWEEN	RESULT.
1513	Guinegate (Spurs).	Henry VIII. and Louis XII. of France.	The French, though greatly superior in numbers, on being charged by the English mounted archers were seized with a panic and fled.
1513	Flodden.	Henry VIII. and James IV. of Scotland as ally of Louis XII.	The English, under the Earl of Surrey, inflicted a severe defeat on the Scots. James IV. and many nobles, with 10,000 Scotch soldiers, were slain.
1547	Pinkie.	Duke of Somerset (as Protector of England) and the Regent Arran of Scotland.	The English, though the Scots suffered a severe defeat, gained no advantage. Many Scottish nobles, though in favour of the match, were displeased with the attempt to force the marriage of Edward VI. and the young queen of Scotland.

## PRINCIPAL NAVAL ENGAGEMENTS

DATE.	NAME.	ENGLISH AND ALLIES: LEADERS.	OPPOSING LEADERS.	RESULT.
1512	Brest.	Sir Edward Howard.	Admiral Primauguet (French).	After a terrible encounter the French were defeated.
1588	Spanish Armada.	Lord Howard and Admirals Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher.	Duke of Medina Sidonia.	Only 53 shattered hulks out of 132 large ships reached Spain, the remainder being either destroyed by the British fleet or by the storm that raged.

## LITERARY MEN

NAME AND DATES.	CLASS OF WRITER.	PERSONAL NOTES.	EDUCATION.	CHIEF WORKS.
William Caxton, 1412-1491.	Translator and general writer.	The first English printer. Served his time as a mercer, went and settled at Bruges, where he learned the art of printing, probably from Colard Mansion. Returning to England he set up his press at Westminster.		Translations from the French, and a few direct from the Latin, others being original compositions. The first book issued in England by Caxton was probably 'The Game and Playe of the Chesse,' 1474; the next 'The Dictes and Sayings of Philosophers,' 1477.

NAME AND DATES.	CLASS OF WRITER.	PERSONAL NOTES.	EDUCATION.	CHIEF WORKS.
Sir Thomas More, 1480-1535.	Philosophical and controversial.	Lord High-chancellor, the first layman appointed to this office; beheaded by Henry VIII. for denying the king's supremacy in the church.	Oxford University.	'Utopia' ('no place'), one of his earliest works, in which he pictures a fanciful scheme of perfect government, first written in Latin; 'History of Edward V. and his Brother and Richard III.' (1513).
William Tyndale, 1477-1536.	Translator and theologian.	One of the earliest English reformers, was obliged to leave his university on account of having imbibed the doctrines of Luther. He was imprisoned at Antwerp, and after two years' confinement was strangled and burned for heresy.	Oxford University.	Translated the New Testament (printed at Antwerp in 1526), and the Five Books of Moses (1530); wrote 'The Wicked Mammon,' and 'The True Obedience of a Christian.'
Thomas Cranmer, 1489-1556.	Theological.	By suggesting to Henry VIII. the propriety of referring the divorce to the judgment of the universities he became a favourite with the king. He was made Archbishop of Canterbury. During the reign of Mary, was deprived of office, and burned at the stake.	Jesus College, Cambridge.	He furthered the interests of the Reformation by framing the 'Liturgy,' the 'Book of Twelve Homilies,' the 'Articles of Religion,' &c.
Richard Hooker, 1553-1600.	Theological.	An eminent Church of England divine, appointed Master of the Temple in 1585, from 1591 a quiet country rector.	Corpus Christi College, Oxford.	A controversy between Hooker and the puritan Walter Travers is said to have caused the publication of Hooker's great work 'The Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity,' the first four books of which appeared in 1593. His sermons on 'Justification by Faith,' and on the 'Perpetuity of Faith in God's Elect,' are considered the best defences of the doctrines they discuss.

NAME AND DATES.	CLASS OF WRITER.	PERSONAL NOTES.	EDUCATION.	CHIEF WORKS.
John Foxe, 1517-1587.	Biographical and theological.	Expelled from his college in the reign of Henry VIII. for adopting the Protestant doctrines; reinstated in his fellowship, and received a prebendal stall in the cathedral of Salisbury in the reign of Elizabeth.	Oxford University.	Foxe was the author of many controversial and other works, but the only one now read is his 'Acts and Monuments of the Church' (1563), commonly known as 'Foxe's Book of Martyrs,' which gives a 'history of the troubles wrought and practised by Romish prelates, specially in this realm of England.'
Sir Philip Sidney, 1554-1586.	Poet and romance writer.	Ranks as one of the most accomplished statesmen and writers of his age. He became a favourite of Queen Elizabeth, and took part in the campaign of 1586 against the Spaniards, during which he was slain near Zutphen.	Oxford and Cambridge Universities.	'A Defence of Poesy' (1581); 'Sonnets and Poems'; and the celebrated pastoral romance of 'Arcadia' (1580).
Edmund Spenser, 1552-1599.	Poet.	He was appointed secretary to the viceroy of Ireland, and received the grant of the estate of Kilcolman (co. Cork), where he lived till the rebellion of Tyrone forced him to return to England.	Pembroke College, Cambridge.	'The Shepherds' Calendar' (1579), a rustic poem containing a pastoral for each month of the year; 'The Faerie Queene' (1586 and later years, left incomplete), an allegorical poem written in a stanza of nine lines—called the Spenserian—for which he received a pension of £50 a year; 'The Tears of the Muses'; 'Mother Hubbard's Tale,' a political satire, &c.
Sir Walter Raleigh, 1552-1618.	Historian.	Eminent as a soldier, sailor, discoverer, author, and courtier. Established the colony of Virginia. Executed for treason.	Oriel College, Oxford.	'The History of the World' (1614) (written during a confinement of thirteen years), a work which is still much admired, giving a history of the world from the earliest times to near the beginning of the Christian era. He also wrote political and other pieces.

NAME AND DATES.	CLASS OF WRITER.	PERSONAL NOTES.	EDUCATION.	CHIEF WORKS.
Christopher Marlowe, 1564-1593.	Dramatic poet.	Son of a shoemaker; lived a wild life; stabbed in a tavern brawl. The greatest dramatist before Shakspeare.	King's School, Canterbury; Bennet College, Cambridge.	Dramas of 'Tamburlaine the Great;' 'Doctor Faustus;' 'Jew of Malta;' 'Edward II.'
William Shakspeare, 1564-1616.	Dramatic poet.	The prince of dramatists, an actor and theatre proprietor, amassed a considerable fortune, and bought property at Stratford-on-Avon his native town. Few particulars regarding his life are known with certainty.	Free Grammar School, Stratford.	He wrote thirty-seven plays between 1591 and 1614, also sonnets and other poems; particularly 'Venus and Adonis,' and 'The Rape of Lucrece.' The names of his plays are too well known to require mention here.

## PRINCIPAL TREATIES IN BRITISH HISTORY DURING PERIOD 1485-1603

**Etaples (1492).**—Between Henry VII. and Charles VIII. of France:—

A public treaty established peace and alliance between England and France. By a private treaty Charles was to pay Henry the sum of £149,000 on condition that Henry withdrew his army from France.

**Magnus Intercursus (1496).**—Between England and Flanders. Henry VII., in order to drive Perkin Warbeck from the Netherlands, removed the cloth-market from Antwerp to Calais, and banished the Flemish merchants from England. This act put a stop to the Flemish trade. A commercial treaty was then agreed upon, by which Warbeck was expelled from Flanders and the trade between the two countries was established on a firmer footing.

**Malus Intercursus (1506)** was a commercial treaty entered into by England and France in the reign of Henry VII.

**Cateau Cambrésis (1559).**—Between Elizabeth, Henry II. of France, and Philip II. of Spain. Chief terms:—

1. France was to retain Boulogne and Calais.
2. Calais was to be restored to the English at the end of eight years, failing this France was to pay a sum of 500,000 crowns to England.

3. The payment of the fine did not cancel the obligation of the French ultimately to restore Calais.
4. France and Spain were to restore most of the conquests made during the war. ✓

## PRINCIPAL LAWS AND LEGAL ENACTMENTS

**Statute of Drogheda or Poyning's Law (1495).**—When Perkin Warbeck was driven from Flanders in consequence of the treaty, he sailed to Ireland and attempted to raise a revolt in Cork. Owing to the firm rule instituted by Sir Edward Poyning, the lord-deputy, Warbeck was unsuccessful and was compelled to turn his steps to Scotland. The act known as Poyning's Law enacted that:—

1. All former English laws should have force in Ireland.
2. No bill should be submitted to the Irish Parliament unless it had first received the assent of the English Parliament.
3. Previous to the holding of the Irish Parliament the consent of the English sovereign should be obtained.

**Reformation Acts.**—The chief parliamentary decrees passed during the reign of Henry VIII. relating to the change of religion are as follows:—

1. Henry VIII. declared head of the church in 1531.
2. Payment of "First Fruits" to the pope abolished, 1532.
3. The Parliament of 1533 forbade appeals to the pope.
4. In 1554 Henry was declared "the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England."

**Act of Six Articles (1539—repealed in 1547),** called also the "Bloody Statute" on account of the persecution which followed their being made law, declared that on pain of death all persons should believe:—

1. In Transubstantiation—or that the real body of Christ is present in the Lord's Supper.
2. Priests or professed nuns should not marry.
3. Communion in one kind only is necessary.
4. Vows of chastity should be kept.
5. Private masses should be retained.
6. Auricular confession is necessary. ✓

EUROPEAN HISTORY  
FIFTEENTH AND SIXTEENTH  
CENTURIES



# EUROPEAN HISTORY

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## CHAPTER I

### THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

The fifteenth century may be regarded as a time of transition from mediæval to modern history. During those years the previous growth of ideas attained its fruit in discoveries, changes, and inventions which in many respects revolutionized the condition of man in the world, and brought about the state of things under which we now exist. This century saw an old order passing rapidly away and a new one establishing itself in its stead. Not that the changes occurred within the narrow space of one hundred years. Much of the new had come before that period began; far more has happened since the period ended; but none the less that hundred years is just the time when men and women in western and central Europe woke up to many of the facts around them, and set themselves to reason freely on those facts, and to act boldly on the judgments formed thereon.

A list of the great events and changes belonging to this transition period will show the supreme importance of the time. They are these: the general application of the mariner's compass to navigation, with the rediscovery of America and of the route to India round the Cape; the use of gunpowder in war, with the general fall of feudalism and of chivalry, and the rise of standing armies and absolute monarchies; the invention of printing, with the spread of books and of education,

and the general revival of classical learning; the beginning of the modern state system of Europe, with the intrigues of diplomacy and the development of policy known as the "balance of power"; the establishment of social order and strong centralized government, with the extinction or depression of constitutional liberties; and the final destruction of the long-decaying Eastern Empire by the establishment of a powerful Mohammedan empire in south-eastern Europe.

In proceeding to deal with some of these matters, we shall take first a glance at the position of the principal states of Europe about the year 1450, the middle of the fifteenth century.

#### PRINCIPAL STATES OF EUROPE

In the west, *Portugal* had entered upon its brilliant career of geographical discovery. Its arms were carried into Africa in the capture of *Ceuta* (1415), and this led to the expeditions of discovery on the west coast of that continent, which were the foundation of Portugal's geographical renown.

In *Spain* the two kingdoms of *Aragon* and *Castile* were at the beginning of the fifteenth century the chief Christian states. In 1471 the marriage of *Isabella*, Queen of Castile, with *Ferdinand*, heir to the crown of Aragon, led to the formation once for all of one compact Spanish kingdom, in the consolidation of which the sovereigns had the assistance of the able minister, Cardinal Ximenes. The Mohammedans still had a foothold in Granada, and Ferdinand and Isabella could not endure this reproach. A ten years' war (1481-91) ended in the capture of the Moslem stronghold of Granada, and the consequent fall of Moslem rule in Spain after an existence of about seven and a half centuries.

*France* was about to become a great and compact state in the final expulsion (1453) of the English from their possessions in the land (save at Calais). *Burgundy* (soon to cease to be a duchy in the east of France) ruled to the north also what is now French Flanders, Belgium, and much of Holland. *Norway*, *Sweden*, and *Denmark* (united in 1397) formed a realm

subject to fluctuations in the way of revolts by one state or the other. *Sweden* rises to importance at a later date in European history.

In *Italy* the north-west of the country was mostly held by the *Duchy of Milan*, including a number of flourishing cities under the rule of *Francesco Sforza*, a brave and unscrupulous leader of mercenaries, who seized his power in 1450. The *Popes* held the centre of the land, while in the south was the kingdom of *Naples and Sicily*. But the two most important states of Italy at this time were Venice and Florence. *Venice* was not only the leading maritime power of the world in the last part of the middle ages, but acquired in the fifteenth century a large dominion on land in the north-east of Italy. *Florence*—the great example in the middle ages of a democratic republic, as Venice was of an aristocratic commonwealth—was the Athens of the mediæval world. In the fifteenth century a mercantile family named the *Medici* rose to chief power in the state, and under their enlightened patronage art and letters flourished as never before.

*Germany*, as an empire, was a decaying power. The *Duchy of Austria* was gaining ground in the south-east. *Switzerland* had won its freedom. There was no *Prussia* yet, only a small electoral state called *Brandenburg*. The German Emperor, who was Duke of Austria, was also king of the *Slavonic* state of *Bohemia*. The *Magyar* kingdom of *Hungary* was a strong bulwark for Europe against the inroads of the Turks.

In the east of Europe the powerful *Slavonic* kingdom of *Poland* included much of what is now Prussia and Russia, and was also serviceable to Europe as a defence against the Turks. This repeated mention of the Moslem invaders of Europe brings us to the account of their presence there in a force so formidable and so perilous to Christianity.

#### FALL OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE

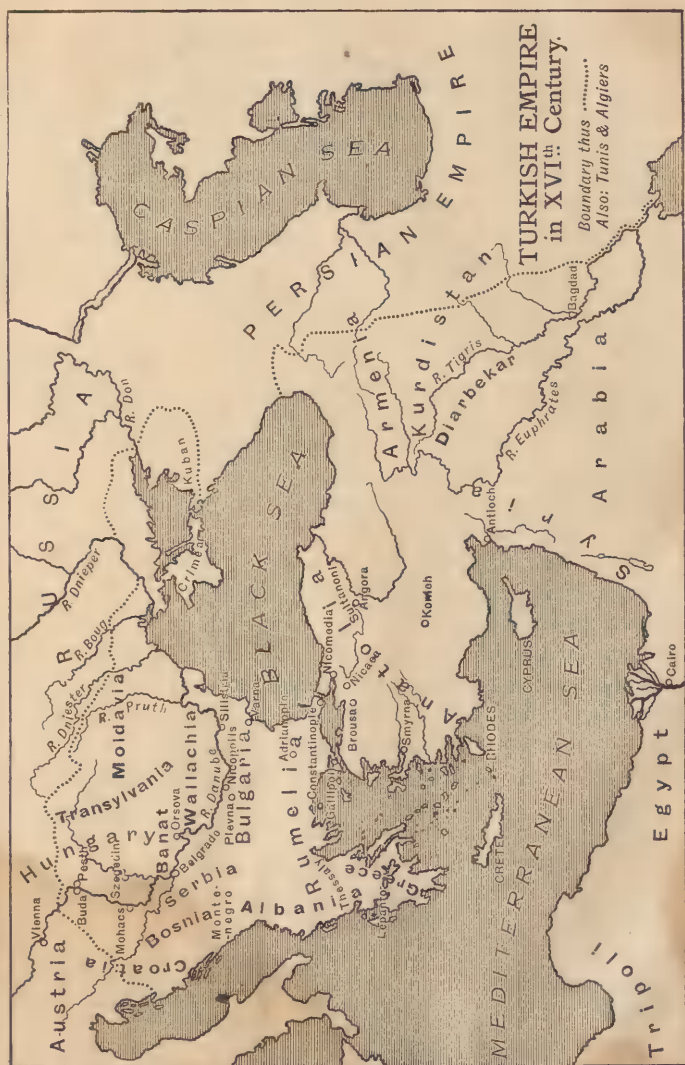
It was the valiant *Soliman* who first invaded Europe in 1355, and secured his connection with Asia Minor by fortifying the Dardanelles. In 1360 the sultan *Amurath I* took *Hadrianople*,

and made it the capital of the Ottoman realm in Europe. At the head of his "janissaries<sup>1</sup>", he swept on into Macedonia and Servia, and gained a great victory at *Kossova* (in Servia) in 1389, over a confederacy of Slavonian peoples. The sultan *Bajazet* (ruled 1389 to 1402) invaded Thessaly, reached the walls of Constantinople, fortified the Bosphorus, and made the Greek emperor pay tribute. Thus, by the year 1400, the Greek Empire was reduced to the possession of Constantinople, a part of Greece, and a few outlying fragments to west of Turkey and in north-east of Asia Minor.

A temporary respite came in the downfall of the haughty *Bajazet* before the attack of a new foe from inner Asia, the famous *Timour the Tartar*, or *Tamerlane*, who by an irruption into Asia Minor called off *Bajazet* from the siege of Constantinople in 1402, defeated and captured him at the battle of *Angora*, and carried him about for public show in a cage. *Amurath II* (died in 1451) did much to strengthen Turkish rule in Europe. Under his son and successor *Mohammed II*, the last of the Eastern Empire fell.

*Mohammed II* became sultan in 1451, when *Constantine (XI) Palaeologus* was emperor, and at once set himself to complete the Turkish conquest. With a vast army, supported by a powerful fleet and aided by heavy cannon (now first used, perhaps, with really great effect in battering walls), he assailed Constantinople in a siege of fifty-three days' duration. On May 29th, 1453, the great city was stormed by the Turks; *Constantine* fell fighting; a fearful slaughter of the citizens was made; the splendid church built by *Justinian* became the Mohammedan *Mosque of Saint Sophia*; and the Ottoman Empire was established in Europe, with Constantinople for its capital, as a great and formidable power. Before his death in 1481 the Turks had conquered the *Morea*, the rest of Asia Minor (*Empire of Trebizond*, in north-east), *Bosnia*, *Epirus*, and the islands of *Negropont* and *Lemnos*.

<sup>1</sup> The "janissaries" were a standing force of picked infantry raised from among the bravest and strongest of the Christian children whom the Turks had enslaved.



## GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERY

The travels of *Marco Polo* in Asia, between 1271 and 1295, had first given the modern world some glimmering of light on the remote east of Asia, and the close study by *Christopher Columbus* of Polo's famous book influenced the great discoverer in his desire for exploration. The English traveller, *Sir John de Mandeville* (born at St. Albans about 1300), travelled much in Asia and northern Africa, and his accuracy in describing what he saw himself has been confirmed by travellers in modern times. The Arabs were familiar with the fact that Africa might be circumnavigated, and the Jewish traders to Mozambique by the east route first made known in modern Europe the existence of the *Cape of Good Hope*. *America* had been discovered about A.D. 1000 by Scandinavians, who reached the shore near where Boston now stands, but so low was the state of intelligence in Europe that the very memory of their voyages had been altogether lost.

It is quite uncertain at what epoch the polarity of the magnet first became known in Europe. It was certainly known to some as early as the thirteenth century, and was, perhaps, first applied to commerce in the fourteenth century by the Genoese navigators, who steered into the Atlantic Ocean towards England and Flanders, and began to interchange the exports of London, Bruges, and Alexandria. It was not, however, generally used in navigation till early in the fifteenth century.

Prince *Henry*, known as "*Henry the Navigator*", third son of *John I* (or *John the Great*) of Portugal, led the way in plans of maritime discovery. Portuguese colonies were settled at *Madeira* in 1420, at the *Azores* in 1433, and about the same time on the *Gold Coast of Guinea*. Before the death of this enlightened man in 1463 the full knowledge of the Western African Coast was thus pushed onwards from *Cape Nun* (opposite the Canary Islands) to *Cape Bojador*, then to *Cape Blanco* and *Cape Verde*, and southwards nearly to the equator. Under *John II of Portugal* (reigned 1481-1495),

perhaps the ablest king the country has had, the expeditions of geographical discovery were continued with zeal and with scientific method. Portugal received as citizens many of the learned and enterprising Jews who had been driven from Spain after the fall of Granada, and she derived benefit from her tolerance of spirit.

*Bartholomew Diaz* doubled the *Cape of Good Hope* in 1487, and when the coast was found to run north-east, giving a good prospect of success in reaching India, the king changed the name of the storm-beaten headland from *Cabo Tormentoso*, or *Cape of Storms*, to *Cabo de Boa Esperança*, or *Cape of Good Hope*. In the following reign *Vasco da Gama* reached round the Cape the port of *Calicut* on the *Malabar* (south-west) coast of India, and the long-sought object of a sea-route to southern Asia was thus attained in 1498. To anticipate, for a moment, the grand achievement of Columbus, we will mention that the Portuguese admiral *Alvares de Cabral*, in April, 1500, on a voyage to the East Indies, made his way across the Atlantic to *Brazil*, which had been discovered three months before by *Pinçon*, one of the companions of Columbus.

*Christopher Columbus* was a native of *Genoa*, but Spain claims the merit of his great discovery, because it was made with the assistance of her queen, *Isabella*. About 1474 Columbus seems to have formed his plan of reaching the East Indies entirely by sea, a project to which he was urged by the desire of benefiting the merchants of *Genoa*, whose land trade with India by way of the *Crimea* and the *Caspian Sea* had been greatly injured by the irruptions of the *Tartars* and the *Turks*. It must not be forgotten that Columbus started with no idea of discovering a new world, but simply of making his way to India by a western route in rivalry of the Portuguese efforts to reach the same goal round the southern point of Africa. It is also certain that Columbus never knew the nature of his own discovery, but died in the belief that it was actually some part of Asia.

We do not give here the interesting details of the voyage of Columbus. On Friday, August 3rd, 1492, after eighteen years

of arguing for truth and supplication for aid, this great man sailed with his three little ships from *Palos* (in the south-west of Spain), and on October 12th at sunrise he set foot on the island of *St. Salvador*, one of the *Bahama* group. We may note that the mistaken belief that the new discovery was a part of Asia led to the name of *Indians* being wrongly given to the natives of the western continent, and of *West Indies* to the islands in the Gulf of Mexico. Columbus further discovered *Cuba* and *Hayti* (or *Hispaniola*), and then returned to Europe, entering the harbour of *Palos* on March 15th, 1493, amid shouting crowds, roaring guns, and ringing bells. He had carried his point at last, and on reaching the court of Ferdinand and Isabella at Barcelona, Columbus entered the city in triumph, was seated next to the throne to tell his story, and created a grandee of Spain. In subsequent voyages, the discoverer of America visited *Jamaica*, *Trinidad*, and the mainland of *South America*. After experiencing in Spain much of the jealousy of courtiers, and the faithlessness and ingratitude of a sovereign like Ferdinand, Columbus died at Valladolid in 1506.

The first expedition that ever sailed round the world was that which started under the command of the famous Portuguese navigator *Fernando de Magalhaens* (or *Magellan*), who did not live to complete the voyage. He entered the service of Spain in 1519, sailed south-west for the Spice Islands of Asia, passed through the *Strait of Magellan* into the *Pacific* (his own name for the calm expanse of water that he saw), and across that vast ocean reached the *Philippine Islands* in 1521, where he died in a struggle with the natives—according to the statement of his followers, who have been suspected of his murder. His lieutenant, *Sebastian d'Elcano*, took the ship back to Spain by September, 1522, after achieving the first circumnavigation of the globe.

These discoveries of new lands and new markets for goods gave a great impulse to trade and manufactures, increased the wealth of Europe, and soon caused the building of powerful navies by the chief new maritime states, *Spain*, *Portugal*, *Eng-*

*land*, and *Holland*. Sovereigns and statesmen began to see that commerce was a great promoter of prosperity and power for nations, and the colonization of the world began in the East and the West.

The effect of the adoption of the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope was disastrous to the republic of *Venice*. The shortest and safest road to India from the Mediterranean was by the Red Sea and the Arabian Sea, and Venice had the command of the ports of Syria and Egypt through which the traffic of India passed to and from central and western Europe. By the adoption of the new route round Africa, *Venice* lost her commercial supremacy; *Egypt*, lately an avenue to India, was left out in the cold: the commercial monopoly of the European Jews was broken down: western Europe, instead of the Mediterranean, became the centre of the world's trade, and the British Islands were soon put in the front of the great new movement, and in a position to obtain the commercial and maritime supremacy of the globe. The *Dutch* acquired at first the carrying-trade of goods which the Portuguese brought from the East to Lisbon, and the profit was such that the wide-awake Hollanders determined to get the Eastern trade and settlements into their own hands as soon as they could oust their rivals of the Peninsula.

#### REVIVAL OF LEARNING

It was the fall of Constantinople that gave a great impulse to the study of classical learning which had long been gradually rising. The Latin language, in which all legal instruments were drawn up, and which all ecclesiastics used in their correspondence, had never ceased to be familiar to men of culture. During the dark ages, however, from the sixth to the eleventh century, it is rare to meet with a quotation from any classical author of Rome; her greatest writers had almost ceased to be read. During the *twelfth century*, a change took place, and classical Latin authors began to be read, and the language to be written with greater purity. About the middle

of the *fourteenth century*, a zealous desire to restore the ancient learning begins to appear. The copying of books had become a regular trade, and books were much lowered in price, an improvement which was aided by the introduction of paper made from linen rags. Translations from classical authors began to be made. It was south of the Alps, in *Italy*, that literature really flourished; *France* came next, and *England* and *Germany* were, in comparison, very backward.

*Petrarch* in his age (fourteenth century) took great pains to preserve the remains of authors who were perishing from neglect and time. Another great Florentine writer, *Boccaccio*, aided this work, and the errors made by transcribers were corrected by these Italian scholars, to a great extent, so as to furnish an intelligible text of the Latin classics a century before the invention of printing. In the *fifteenth century* more still was done for classical learning. The Italian scholars gave up their lives to the rescue of manuscripts from a mouldering death, and to the revival of philology. To Italy, far more than to any other country, the world of letters owes the present possession of the recovered treasures of classical writing. To name one more of these illustrious and devoted men in what was then the most enlightened country in the world, *Poggio* (pod-jee-o) *Bracciolini* (brach-ee-o-lē-nē), in the early part of the fifteenth century, discovered and rescued from destruction by damp and dirt the entire work of *Quintilian*, twelve comedies of *Plautus*, the works of *Lucretius* and *Silius Italicus*, and many other less known writers.

Turning to the *Greek* language, we find that this grand tongue, this splendid literature, had been all but forgotten in western Europe. A few of the schoolmen knew some Greek, but the ignorance of it, even in Italy, was almost universal, and hardly a line from a Greek poet is found quoted between the sixth and the fourteenth centuries. As with the classical Latin, so with the Greek, *Petrarch* and *Boccaccio* led the way in a revival of the language, and in the restoration of its learning. They both studied it themselves, *Petrarch* reading *Plato* with a scholar from Constantinople, and *Boccaccio* causing public

lectures on *Homer* to be delivered in Florence. A little before the end of the *fourteenth century*, a scholar from Constantinople named *Emanuel Chrysoloras*, taught Greek literature at *Florence*, and then, in succession, at *Pavia*, *Venice*, and *Rome*. A taste for the new learning was created; Italian scholars went to the fountain-head at *Constantinople*, to drink deeper yet of the new Pierian spring, and returned to their native land, not only with stores of learning in their heads, but with rich treasures of manuscripts in their hands. In 1423, one of these zealous students brought home to Venice nearly 240 volumes of classical lore. The fulness of time was come for the general revival of Greek literature when the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, and drove in flight over Europe a great number of scholars with their books. Some of the Popes in the fifteenth century encouraged the Greek learning, and *Bessarion*, *Theodore Gaza*, and *George of Trebizond* spread the knowledge of it at *Florence*, *Naples*, and *Rome*, before the fall of Constantinople: of the Greek exiles, *Lascaris* was, perhaps, the most illustrious. From *Italy* the zeal for the restoration of classical literature had spread slowly to *France*, *England*, and *Germany*: a Greek professor was first appointed at the *University of Paris* in 1458, and it was later still that Greek was taught at *Oxford* by *Grocyn* and *Colet*, and by *Erasmus* at *Cambridge*.

Block-printing, or printing from blocks each presenting perhaps a whole page, had been known for many centuries in China and for some ages in Europe before the invention of the *movable metal types* which constitute in wide practical value the art of printing. As in the case of many other great improvements, it is impossible to assign to the real author with absolute certainty the glory of the invention of this method of printing. It is generally given now to *John Gutenberg* of *Mainz* (*Mentz* or *Mayence*) in Germany: *Peter Schöffer*, also of *Mainz*, made the immense improvement of inventing the casting of types, instead of the former method of cutting each individual type in wood or metal, a troublesome and expensive process.

The earliest known complete printed book is what is called the *Mazarin Bible*, because the first copy was discovered in the

library founded by Cardinal Mazarin at Paris: its probable date is between 1450 and 1455: several copies have since come to light. In 1462 appeared the *second Mentz Bible* (printed, as the *Mazarin* probably was, at the press of *Gutenberg* and *Faust*, or *Fust*), considered to be the first book printed with the cast metal types. In 1465 the same press issued the *first printed classical work*, an edition of *Cicero's "Offices"*, a treatise on moral duties. From *Germany* the art of printing was carried

**T**henne beganne agayne the bataylle of the one par  
te/ And of the other Eneas ascryed to theym and  
sayd. Lordes why doo ye fyghte/ Ye knowe well  
that the couenannte ys deuysed and made/ That Tur-  
nus and I shall fyghte for you alle/

Thenne beganne agayne the bataylle of the one parte / And of the  
other Eneas ascryed to theym and sayd. Lordes why doo ye fyghte /  
Ye knowe well that the couenante ys deuysed and made / That Turnus  
and I shall fyghte for you alle /

*Then began again the battle on the one part. And on the other,  
Aeneas cried to them and said: "Lords, why do ye fight? Ye know  
well that the covenant is devised and made, that Turnus and I shall  
fight for you all."*

Facsimile of part of Caxton's *Aeneid* (reduced), with the same in modern type  
and in modern spelling

at once to *Italy*, and before the end of the fifteenth century many of the classical authors had been copied in the new form which was to make their treasures of wisdom and of style immortal.

It was from Colard Mansion, a Bruges printer, that William Caxton learned the new art. In 1476 Caxton set up, at Westminster, the first English printing press, and his example was soon followed by others. Caxton was not only a printer, he was also a man of letters. The wise judgment he showed, both in choosing what books to publish, and in setting a

standard for the English tongue, had a most beneficial effect on English literature.

#### THE BALANCE OF POWER

As the chief states of Europe became settled in the form of strong centralized governments, having absolute monarchs at the head of them, with standing armies (save in England) to enforce their will, and with the succession to the throne hereditary in particular lines, there was developed that curious and pernicious disease of inter-monarchical (and sometimes international) jealousy known as the theory of the "balance of power". It was held that no single state must be allowed to acquire such power as to make it formidable to others, and thus, in the way of alliances brought about by royal inter-marriage or by the other resources of diplomacy, continual efforts were made to thwart an ambitious power and secure its rivals against unjust pretensions and undue aggrandizement. The results of all this were frequent wars, waged by aspiring sovereigns for their own purposes with little or no regard to the people's real interests, and a complicated condition of international relations which is known as the "states-system of Europe".

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## CHAPTER II

## THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

In February, 1500, was born a man who was destined to be the foremost statesman of his day in Europe. Of the Houses of Austria and Spain, and grandson of Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, *Charles V* inherited not only the kingdoms of Spain and the Two Sicilies, but also the Netherlands, and was in due time elected to be Emperor of Germany, defeating his rival, *Francis I*, who was born six years before (1494), and who also had sought the votes of the Electors. In 1491 was born *Henry VIII* of England, and on these three handsome and accomplished princes the eyes of all Europe were fixed for nearly half a century.

Charles V reigned for thirty-five years. Now the reign of Charles interests us not so much for his incessant wars, in which at one time he took his rival Francis captive at the battle of Pavia and carried him off to Spain, or for his splendid victory over the Moors and relief of 1000 Christian captives at Tunis, as for the beginning under *Luther* (born in 1483, died in 1546) of that great movement which divided Germany into Catholic and Protestant States, and after various reverses of fortune resulted in procuring religious liberty in France by the *Edict of Nantes*, 1598, and in Germany by the *Treaty of Westphalia* in 1648. Henry VIII, though remaining personally a Catholic, renounced the power of the Pope over the Kingdom and Church of England. He was therefore well fitted to hold the balance between the two Continental rivals, Charles and Francis, being alternately in the favour of the Catholic and the Protestant States. The confusion in politics caused by the new division in religion can be gathered from the fact that at one time the Catholic Emperor, supported by some of both Catholic and Protestant States of Germany, was opposed by the Catholic King of France, the Pope himself, most of the Protestant States of Germany, and even the



Charles V



Francis I



Henry VIII

head of the Mohammedans in Europe, together with the King of England, religiously Catholic, politically Protestant. So far did the interests of temporal power prevail over religious convictions! And so far, at any rate at first, was religion from being the chief factor in what were afterwards called the religious wars of Europe.

To understand how rich this portion of our history is for the historical student, I have only to remind you that the conquests of *Mexico* by Cortez (1521), and *Peru* by Pizarro (1532); the political and religious power of the Inquisition and the Jesuits; the resistance of that power and of Spain and its Invincible *Armada* by the English, under Sir Francis Drake and others, in Elizabeth's reign; the founding of the first English colonies in *Newfoundland* by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and in *Virginia* by Sir Walter Raleigh; the colonization of *Canada* by the French—merit each a history to itself, and supply themes for endless books of adventures, real and fictitious, which the discovery of the printing press in the previous century made more and more possible as the use of mechanical devices in printing became gradually developed.

It is interesting to notice that, just before 1500, Pope Julius II had laid the foundation of *St. Peter's* at Rome—a noble specimen of the architecture of the Renaissance—on the very spot, saturated with the blood of martyrs, where Nero's circus once stood.

When these three leaders, Charles, Francis, and Henry, so handsome in person as young men, so chivalrous in their actions, ambitious in their politics, and so favourable in their temperaments to the development of material progress, had passed away, the conflict still remained, in which Catherine de Medici, Queen Mary of England, Mary Queen of Scots, Elizabeth Queen of England, Charles IX of France, Henry of Navarre, and Philip II of Spain are all chief figures. The rise of the Dutch Republic, the toleration of Protestantism in Germany and even in France, the union of England and Scotland under James I, and the more or less definition of the kingdoms and states of Germany, Spain,

France, and Italy were the outcome of this struggle of nations and factions in the sixteenth century. In America the discoveries of Columbus and Cabot, at the end of the fifteenth century, of a new hemisphere had already put in train that curious division by which Catholicism was established in the south and Protestantism in the north, as in Europe. When Luther died, 1546, the doctrine of the rights of reason had already gone far to inaugurate this division in both hemispheres.

The Netherlands, now Holland and Belgium, which had been inherited by Charles V, and at his abdication by Philip II, were goaded into rebellion by the latter's introduction of the Inquisition, as well as by his political tyranny in 1566. The revolt of the Netherlands resulted in the establishment of the *Dutch Republic* in 1579 by William the Silent, Prince of Orange, who was assassinated in 1584. When Philip II died in 1598 the vast dominions which he had inherited from his father, and which he had doubled by his conquest of Portugal, were reduced to Spain and Portugal in Europe and much weakened in other parts of the world.

The defeat of the *Spanish Armada* in 1588 not only secured the independence of England for the time as a Protestant power, but gave her also command of the sea passage to India and China, and the East India Company obtained its charter in 1600.

In the earlier part of the sixteenth century the *Turks* had possessed themselves of Egypt, Syria, and Palestine, and under Soliman the Magnificent (1519-66) had taken Rhodes, a great part of Persia, and most of Hungary, penetrating to Vienna, where they were defeated by a very inferior force in 1529. But their worst check was by sea, in 1571, at *Lepanto*, where their fleet was annihilated.

Early in this century, too, Gustavus Vasa raised a successful insurrection in *Sweden* against Christian II (the Cruel), who ruled Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and Gustavus was elected King of Sweden in 1523 and crowned in 1528, when also the reformed religion was formally established there.

So far back as the ninth century the contending Slavonic tribes of *Russia* were brought into union by Ruric, a Scandinavian settler, and received Greek Christianity and civilization under Vladimir, but fell under the rule of the Mongols from Central Asia for two centuries and a half. These Mongols left little mark behind them when they were at last driven out by Ivan, Duke of Moscow, towards the end of the fifteenth century, but under Ivan III, the first to call himself Czar or Caesar, in the same century, and *Ivan the Terrible* in the sixteenth century (1529-84), Russia made great progress, Ivan being a correspondent of Queen Elizabeth and encouraging commerce with England.

The sixteenth century was the great age of Italian painting. Michael Angelo, Raphael, Titian, Tintoretto, Correggio, are some of its great names. From other countries of Europe, Holbein, Dürer, and Palissy claim high places in the roll of artists. Among the great names in the literature of the age are: Tasso and Ariosto in Italy, Rabelais and Montaigne in France, Cervantes in Spain, and in England, Spenser, Sidney, and, greatest of all, Shakespeare.

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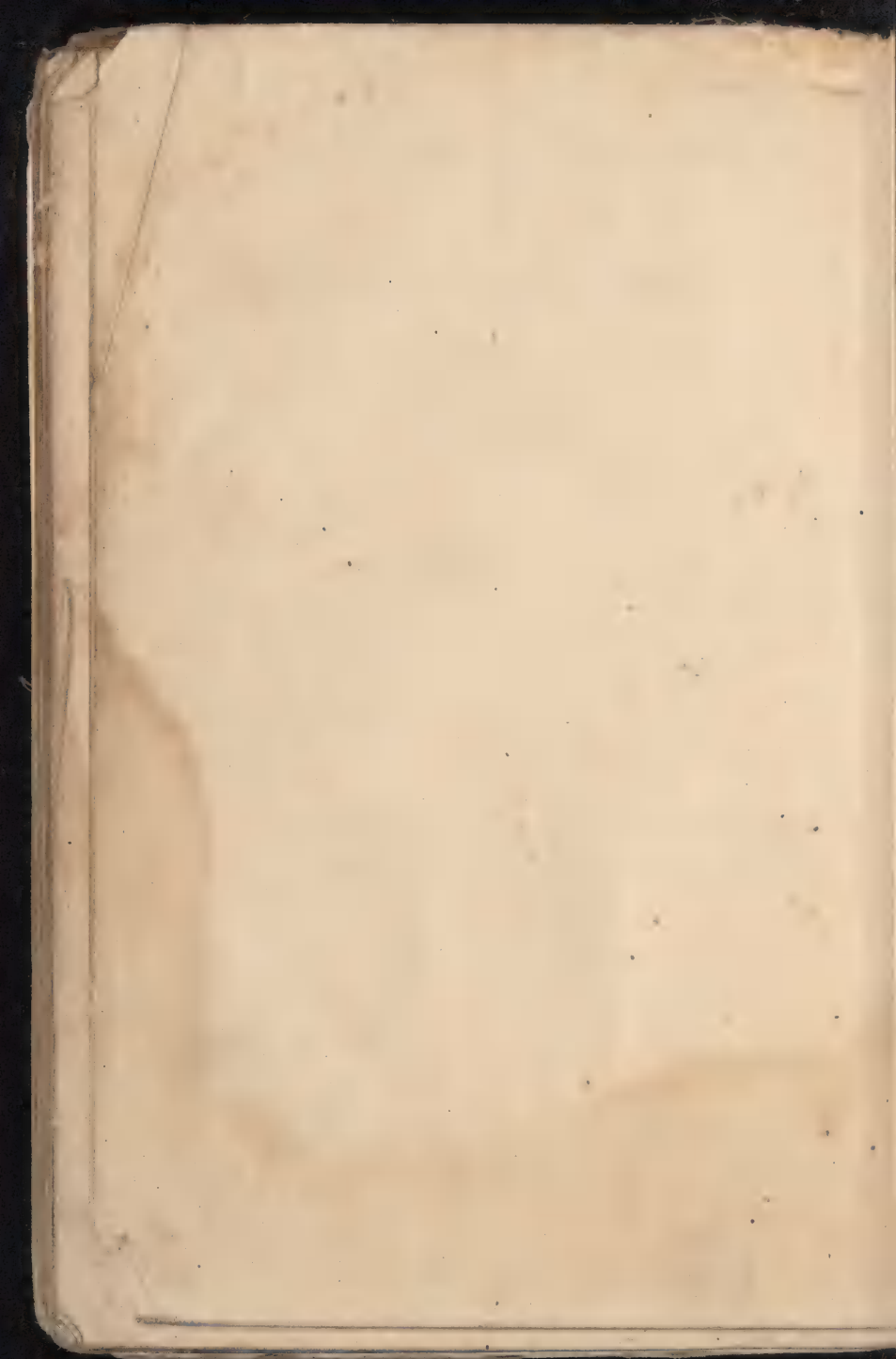
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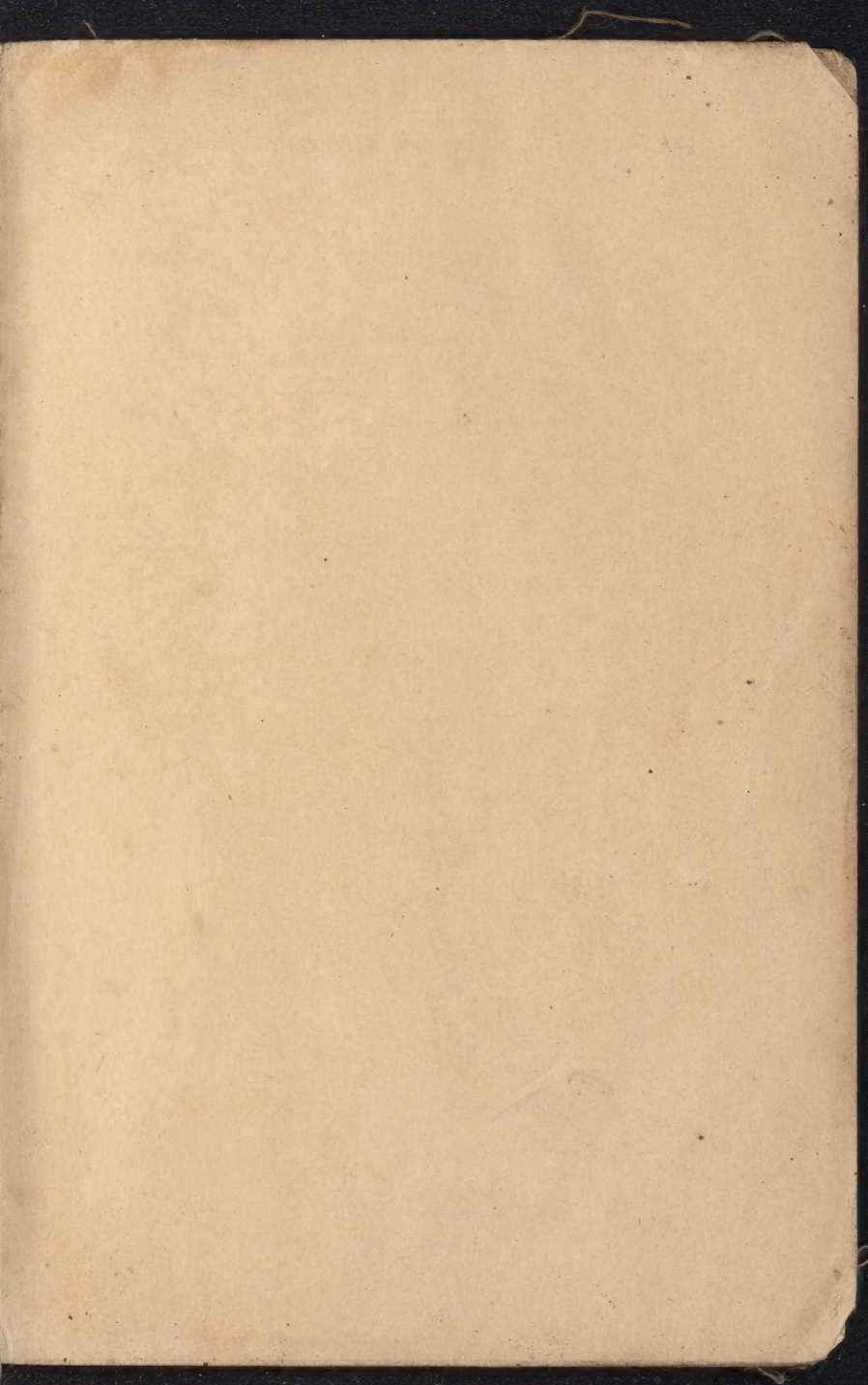
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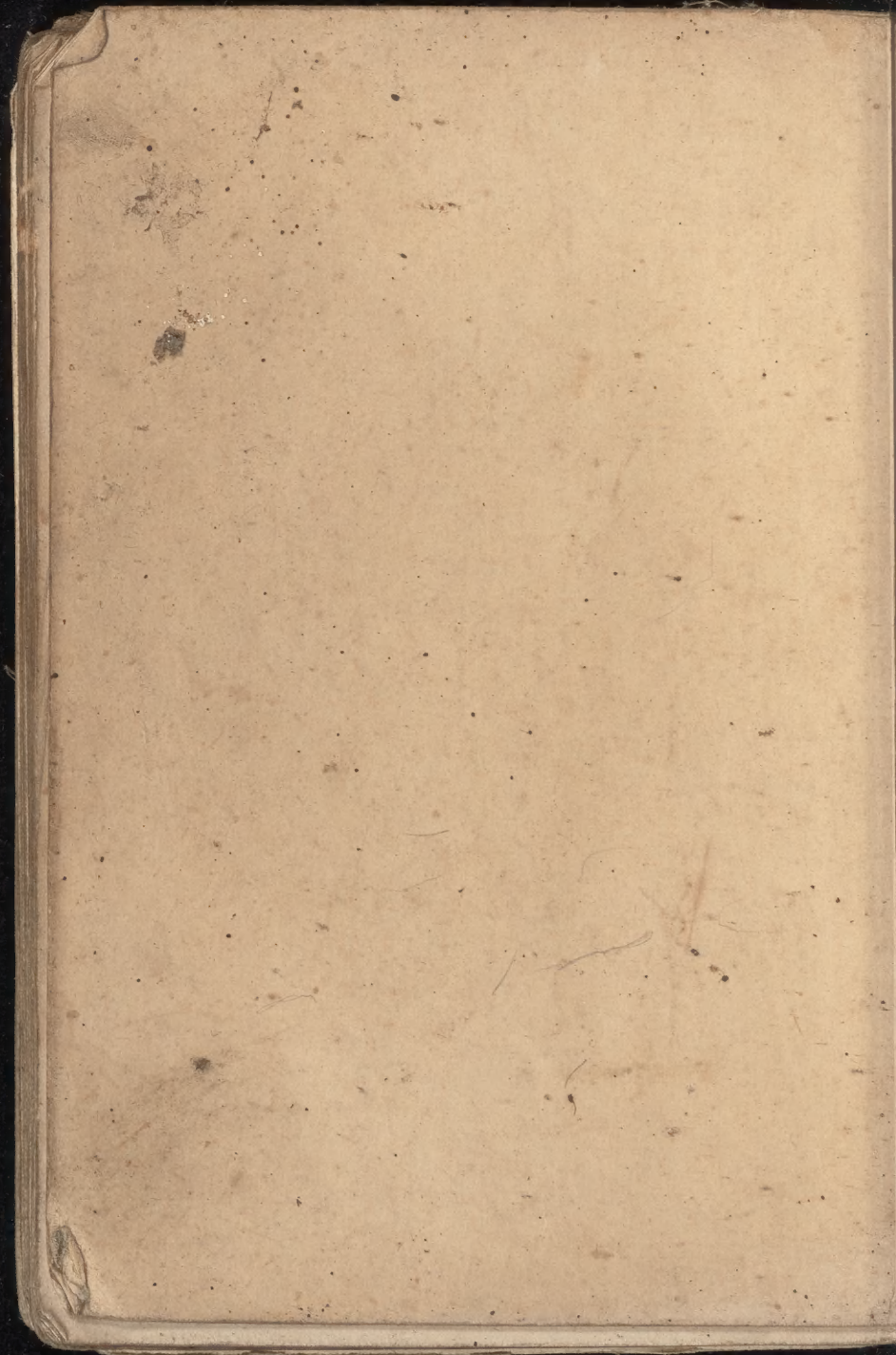
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## SOME DATES IN EUROPEAN HISTORY

## DATE.

1492. Moors expelled from Spain. Discovery of America.  
The Inquisition in Spain.
1499. Switzerland formally separated from Germany.
1520. Charles V crowned Emperor of Germany.  
Rise of the Dutch Republic.
1521. Luther before the Diet of Worms.
1556. Abdication of Charles V.  
Rise of Sweden.
1589. Accession of Henry IV of France (House of Bourbon).
1598. Edict of Nantes.





Foretto Gall.

